MANUAL

OF

LIBRARY ECONOMY

BY

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"BIOGRAPHICAL DICTIONARY OF MUSICIANS," ETC.

WITH ILLUSTRATIONS, FORMS, ETC.

REVISED EDITION

LONDON

THE LIBRARY SUPPLY CO.

181 QUEEN VICTORIA STREET, E.C.

1907

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PREFACE.

THE first edition of this work was addressed, in a large measure, to library authorities, and various questions of policy were dealt with, which have since become generally recognised. In these circumstances, it has not been thought desirable to repeat that kind of matter, but to limit the information to subjects connected with organization and administration which fall strictly within the field of library technology. The book has been re-arranged throughout, and in parts re-written, and some fresh chapters have been added, in order to make it conform to the teaching syllabus of the Library Association. As now published, the "Manual" is a fairly complete text-book of modern library practice, especially as illustrated in the work of British municipal libraries, and it covers nearly every item, apart from bibliography and literary history, which could reasonably be expected to appear in a professional handbook. As in the first edition, only the most generally approved modern methods have been described, because it would be useless, even if it were practicable, to give detailed information regarding every process connected with library routine. There is room for a detailed handbook of methods in addition to a more general work like this, which only deals with broad principles and the more important methods.

I take this opportunity of thanking most heartily my library brethren the world over for the generous manner in which they received the first edition. Equally gratify-

ing has been the wide acceptance and application of many of the principles set forth in that book, particularly by the younger school of librarians. Many suggestions received from librarians of all kinds have been adopted, and the work as now issued may be claimed to represent a very influential body of professional opinion.

I am very much indebted to Mr. James D. Stewart, Chief Assistant, Islington Public Libraries, for revising the lists of authorities and helping in other ways; and also to Mr. William McGill, Branch Librarian, Islington, for revising the Index, and, with Mr. Stewart, for reading the proofs and submitting suggestions. Miss Alice Jones, Senior Assistant, Islington, assisted by Miss Lilian Fairweather, Senior Assistant, and other members of the staff, was good enough to correct the proofs, and I have to acknowledge with thanks the help thus afforded.

Suggestions for the improvement of the book will be gladly received, and additional matter in elucidation of obscure points will also be welcomed.

JAMES DUFF BROWN.

CENTRAL PUBLIC LIBRARY,
ISLINGTON, LONDON, N.,
March, 1907.

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ABBREVIATIONS IN LISTS OF AUTHORITIES QUOTED.

L. = Library.
L. (N. S.) = Library (New Series).
L. A. = Library Assistant.
L. A. R. = Library Association Record.
L. J. = Library Journal.
L. W. = Library World.
P. L. = Public Libraries.

DIVISION I.

FOUNDATION AND COMMITTEES.

CHAPTER I.

LEGISLATION.

1. Municipal Libraries: Acts of Parliament.—The principal Acts of Parliament under which British public municipal libraries are now constituted consist of the following :—

IRELAND.

1855. "18 & 19 Vict., c. 40. An Act for further promoting the establishment of Free Public Libraries and Museums in Ireland." (The principal Act.)

1877. "40 & 41 Vict., c. 15. An Act to amend the Public Libraries Act (Ireland), 1855."

1894. "57 & 58 Vict., c. 38. An Act to amend the Public Libraries (Ireland) Acts."

1902. "The Public Libraries (Ireland) Amendment Act."

Gives power to District Councils to adopt the Acts, and empowers County Councils to make grants in aid of libraries.

SCOTLAND.

1887. "50 & 51 Vict., c. 42. An Act to amend and consolidate the Public Libraries (Scotland) Acts." (The principal Act.)

1894. "57 & 58 Vict., c. 20. An Act to amend the Public Libraries Consolidation (Scotland) Act, 1887."

1899. "62 & 63 Vict., c. 5. An Act to amend the Public Libraries (Scotland) Acts."

ENGLAND AND WALES.

1892. "55 & 66 Vict., c. 53. An Act to consolidate and amend the law relating to Public Libraries." (The principal Act.)

1893. "56 Vict., c. 11. An Act to amend the Public Libraries Act, 1892."

1898. "61 & 62 Vict., c. 53. An Act to provide for the Punishment of Offences in Libraries."

1901. "1 Edw. 7. An Act to amend the Acts relating to Public Libraries, Museums and Gymnasiums, and to regulate the liability of managers of libraries to proceedings for libel."

[NOTE.—This Act does *not* deal with actions for libel. It was originally intended to do so, but the clauses were struck out of the bill, and the title escaped emendation.]

2. The whole of these are in force, and they repeal all the former Acts dating from 1850, while incorporating some of their provisions. In addition to these general Acts, a considerable number of local Acts have been passed on behalf of various towns, which include provisions for the modification of the general Acts, chiefly in regard to removing the limitation of the rate, and for other purposes. Such powers are usually contained in improvement or tramway Acts, and the principal towns which have obtained them include Manchester, Birmingham, Glasgow, Edinburgh, Halifax, Darwen, Sheffield, Cardiff, etc. Several towns, like Brighton, Huddersfield, Kingston-on-Thames, have also special Acts which confer the power of establishing libraries, independently of the general Acts, so that the public libraries of Britain are not constituted under one general law.

3. The Public Library Law is further modified or extended by various other statutes which were passed for different purposes, and the principal Acts of this kind are as follows :—

"24 & 25 Vict., c. 97. An Act to consolidate and amend the Statute Law of England and Ireland relating to malicious injuries to property," 1861.

This gives power to prosecute for misdemeanour any person who unlawfully and maliciously destroys or damages any book, manuscript, etc., in any public museum, gallery, cabinet or library.

"56 & 57 Vict., c. 73. An Act to make further provision for local government in England and Wales," 1894.

Enables rural parishes to adopt the Public Libraries Act, 1892, by means of a parish meeting or poll of the voters in the parish.

"62 & 63 Vict., c. 14. An Act to make better provision for local government in London," 1899.

Confers the power of adopting the Public Libraries Act, 1892, on the Metropolitan Borough Councils, by extending to them the provisions of the Public Libraries Act, 1893.

The remaining statutes which in any way deal with public or private libraries will be noticed in connexion with the departments of library administration to which they specially refer, such as loans, rating, etc.

The only other Acts of Parliament which may in the future influence public libraries are the Education Acts passed since 1902. Under these Acts local Education Boards are empowered to "promote the general co-ordination of all forms of education," and in many districts the education and library authorities are amalgamated for common purposes. It remains to be seen what further extensions will take place.

4. Main Provisions of the Municipal Libraries Acts.—A brief summary of the leading practical points in the various Acts will serve to give an idea of the powers which are conferred upon municipal authorities in regard to libraries :—

(*a*) ADOPTION OF ACTS IN TOWNS.—The Acts may be adopted in any city, county borough, burgh or urban district by a resolution passed by the council, at a special meeting of which a month's notice shall have been given, and the resolution must be advertised publicly in the usual way, and a copy sent to the Local Government Board, if the adoption is in England or Ireland ; while a notice of the fact of adoption must also be sent.

(*b*) ADOPTION OF ACTS IN PARISHES.—In parishes in England and Scotland the Acts can only be adopted by a majority vote of the householders or voters.

(*c*) LIBRARY RATE.—A rate of one penny in the £ on the rateable value of an administrative area is the limit fixed by the Act, but power is given parishes to fix a smaller sum by a popular vote, and urban districts of all kinds to remove or fix any rate within the limit of one penny by resolution of the council.

(*d*) POWERS.—The Library Authority may provide public libraries, museums, schools for science, art galleries and schools for art, and for that purpose may purchase and hire land, and erect, take down, rebuild, alter, repair and extend buildings, and fit up, furnish and supply the same with all requisite furniture, fittings and conveniences. The Library Authority shall exercise the general management, regulation and control of every department established under the provisions of the Acts, and may provide books, newspapers, maps and specimens of art and science, and

cause the same to be bound and repaired when necessary. Also appoint salaried officers and servants, and dismiss them, and make regulations for the safety and use of every library, museum, gallery and school under its control, and for the admission of the public thereto. Power is also given to make agreements with other library authorities for the joint use of library or other buildings; and to borrow money, with the sanction of the central authorities, for the purpose of buying sites, erecting buildings and furnishing them. The Irish Act of 1877 also gives power to establish schools of music as part of a library scheme.

5. **Non-Municipal Libraries: Acts of Parliament.**—The legislation affecting the large number of British libraries which are not supported out of the rates is neither extensive nor satisfactory. The chief feature of most of the Acts of Parliament which have been passed seems to be the benevolent one of granting certain facilities to various kinds of landowners to divest themselves of their property in order to provide sites for literary and scientific institutions. There are similar clauses in the Public Libraries Acts, and, of course, most of the Acts named apply to municipal libraries; but in reality this kind of legislation is not particularly valuable. To make the transfer of land for public purposes more easy is quite laudable, but it has not yet had the effect of inducing landowners to part with free plots of land as building sites, either to public library authorities or literary institutions.

6. The principal Act bearing on literary and scientific institutions is entitled "An Act to afford greater facilities for the establishment of Institutions for the promotion of Literature and Science and the Fine Arts, and to provide for their better regulation," 17 & 18 Vict., c. 112, 1854. This is nearly all taken up with provisions for transfers of lands and other property, and with a few regulations concerning members, rules, altering, extending or dissolving the institution, etc. This Act was afterwards to some extent modified by "An Act to facilitate the transfer of Schools for Science and Art to Local Authorities," 54 & 55 Vict., c. 61, 1891. These, and the other Acts referred to, which deal with transfers of property, have had very little to do with the development of voluntary literary and

scientific institutions or libraries; the principal statute under which most of them are now governed being an Act passed primarily for quite a different purpose. This is the "Act to amend the 'Companies Act, 1862,'" 30 & 31 Vict., c. 131, 1867, under Section 23 of which power is given the Board of Trade to grant licences to literary and similar associations, providing for registration with limited liability, and conferring all the privileges attaching to limited companies. In connexion with this Act, and those of 1862 and 1877, the Board of Trade have issued a series of circulars and forms, which include draft rules, articles of association, etc. Under these licences a considerable number of British literary institutions have been established and organized.

7. British Colonial Library Legislation has proceeded very much on the lines adopted in the mother country, and in every case the permissive character of the Acts has been preserved, and, in most cases, the rate limitation. On the other hand, some effort has been made to keep in touch with schools and universities.

In **South Africa** a Government proclamation established the South African Public Library at Capetown in 1818. This was further regulated by an ordinance passed in 1836, which gave the library the right to receive a free copy of every publication issued in CAPE COLONY. Other libraries in the large towns now receive grants from the Government, and a large number of smaller libraries also receive grants equal to the annual average amount raised by subscriptions and donations during the three preceding years; but in no case shall the amount of the Parliamentary grant exceed £150 for any one library in one year. No grants are made if less than £25 is raised by subscription. In return for the grant, reading-rooms and reference libraries are to be open free to the public, and an annual report has to be presented to the Government. In NATAL the same arrangement is made, though on a much smaller scale. In both colonies books are only lent for home-reading to subscribers. In 1874 an Act was passed by the Legis-

lature of Natal for regulating literary and other societies not legally incorporated.

In **Canada**, under a General Libraries Act of 1854, County Councils were authorized to establish four classes of libraries: (1) Ordinary common school libraries in each school-house for the use of children and ratepayers; (2) a general public library available to all ratepayers in the municipality; (3) professional libraries of books on teaching, etc., for teachers only; and (4) a library in any public institution under the control of a municipality. Arrangements were made whereby the Education Office sold books at low rates to the school libraries; and afterwards the Education Department of the Legislature gave annual grants, equal to the amounts contributed by members for book purchase, to mechanics' institutes, etc., and subsequently increased such grants for books to $400 (£80) annually. The province of Ontario, in 1882, passed "An Act to provide for the Establishment of Free Libraries," on lines very similar to the English Acts. Power is given any city, town or incorporated village to provide libraries, newsrooms, museums and branches, on the petition and with the consent of the qualified electors. The management is vested in a board chosen from the Town Council, citizens other than councillors, and the Public School Boards. The library rate is limited to an "annual rate not exceeding one half of a mill in the dollar, upon the assessed value of all rateable, real and personal property". This form of limitation is borrowed from the practice of the United States. About ninety places have adopted this Free Libraries Act in Ontario. In 1895 an Act was passed in Ontario to enable mechanics' institutes to change their names, and transfer their property to municipalities on condition that the libraries were made free to the public.

The **Australian** colonies have all passed separate laws, somewhat similar to those in force in other parts of the Empire, in regard to their adoption being left to local option, and rates being more or less limited. In 1870 VICTORIA passed an Act establishing the Library, Museum and National Art Gallery at

Melbourne, and in 1885 "The Free Libraries Act" was passed. But, in 1890, these Acts were repealed by "An Act to consolidate the Laws relating to Libraries". The Melbourne Public Library, which was established in 1853, is now wholly supported by Government, and it lends books to any municipality in the colony. In addition, the Government make grants from public funds to most of the mechanics' institutions, athenæums and other literary societies in Victoria.

South Australia has quite a body of library laws, dating from 1863, when the South Australian Institution was incorporated, but most of them have been repealed or incorporated in the two principal Acts regulating institutes and free libraries. By the various Acts passed in connexion with institutes or literary societies, grants in aid are made by Parliament on lines similar to those in force in the other colonies, while rules and regulations are made, and power given to transfer such institutes to the municipalities. Public libraries are regulated by "An Act to establish Free Libraries in Corporate Towns and District Councils," 1898, subsequently amended by an Act of 1902. This Act gives local authorities power, on the request and with the consent of the ratepayers, to adopt the Act, subject to the rate not exceeding 3d. in the £. Municipal libraries are also entitled to receive the same grants as are made to institutes.

In New South Wales public libraries may be established under the "Municipalities Act," 1867. The Government make grants for the purchase of books on a scale according to population, and other funds must be provided by the subscriptions of members. Schools of art are entitled to receive a Government grant in proportion to the amount of monetary support accorded by the public. In addition, the Sydney Public Library (established in 1869) is entirely supported by the Government, and it sends out carefully selected boxes of books to 128 institutes throughout New South Wales, the entire cost being defrayed by Parliament.

In Western Australia grants are made to institutes as

in the other colonies, but there is no general Library Act in existence yet. In 1887 the Government established a Public Library at Perth, and contribute £3,000 per annum for its maintenance. The only legislative enactment concerning libraries in Western Australia is an Act for establishing a Law and Parliamentary Library for the Legislature, which was passed in 1873 and amended in 1889.

QUEENSLAND passed an "Act to consolidate and amend the Laws relating to Municipal Institutions, and to provide more effectually for local government," 1878. This was extended by the "Divisional Boards Act" of 1887, and now Municipal Councils or Divisional Boards may make bye-laws for the establishment, maintenance and management of public libraries. Brisbane Free Public Library, the only library of importance opened under this Act, has an annual grant from the municipal funds varying from £800 to £1,000. One hundred and forty schools of art throughout the colony also receive Government grants for library and other purposes to the extent of about 8s. 2d. for every pound subscribed by members.

TASMANIA has a model library law, which is worthy of adoption in every civilized country. It is contained in "An Act to amend the Law relating to Public Libraries," passed in 1867. It is so short, and so much to the point, that the whole of it may be quoted. After a two-line preamble it declares that: "The Municipal Council of every municipality may, from time to time, apply such sum as it sees fit, out of the rates of such municipality, in and towards the formation and maintenance of Public Libraries within such municipality". That is the whole Act, and it gives no indication of the grudging limitations which other countries inflict. The only blemish on this admirable statute is the fact that it is not compulsory. Most of the Tasmanian towns being small, only Hobart has put the library law into force, by appropriating a penny rate to the support of the Tasmanian Public Library (1849), which is also maintained by Government grants. The small libraries throughout Tasmania receive grants, on the usual conditions, from the Government.

The library law of NEW ZEALAND is based on a series of Acts, similar to those passed in this country for the regulation of municipal libraries and literary institutions. The principal Acts are: (1) "An Act to promote the establishment of Public Libraries," 1869, giving power for the governing body of a city, village or district to adopt the Act with the consent of the ratepayers, and to levy a rate not exceeding 1d. in the £; (2) "An Act to confer powers on Public Libraries and Mechanics' Institutes," 1875—a series of rules for incorporation and management; (3) "An Act to promote the establishment and support of Public Libraries," 1877. In this Act it is laid down that the grant for public libraries is to be apportioned among provincial districts, in proportion to the population of such districts, and that a subsidy equal to the amount of the library rate is to be paid to municipal libraries established under the Act of 1869. Free admission to reading-rooms is permitted, but no person to be allowed to borrow unless he contributes not less than 5s. per annum.

None of the West Indian dependencies have legislation relating to libraries, although grants are paid from Governmental funds towards the maintenance of libraries in different British possessions. In India the Government only subsidizes libraries connected with the leading departments of State, such as law and parliamentary libraries for the use of legislators and the Councils forming the Indian Government.

The British colonial libraries are thus established and regulated on lines very similar to the municipal libraries of this country, and literary institutions of all kinds are incorporated and recognized in the same way as in the United Kingdom. There are numerous differences, however, in points of detail, because, although the permissive clauses are retained for municipal libraries in every case, in some cases, such as Tasmania and South Australia, the rate limit is either non-existent or greatly increased. Again, it is a universal provision in colonial administration for the Governments to assist all kinds of libraries, to the extent of contributing, within limits, as much money as is raised by the subscriptions of members or produced by a

municipal library rate. Also, more attempt is made, especially in Canada, to embody the libraries as part of the national system of education, and in this respect our colonies are ahead of the mother country.

8. The Library Legislation of the United States is of very great importance, because of its variety, liberality and consistent aim to make libraries an essential part of the system of national education.

As Dr. Thomas Bray was the first to procure library legislation in England, so was he the first to obtain a law of this kind in North America. He founded a library in South Carolina, which in 1700 formed the subject of an Act passed by the Legislative Assembly of South Carolina for its regulation and protection. In 1715 a similar law for the same purpose was passed by the Legislative Assembly of North Carolina. In subsequent years many laws were passed by different States for the incorporation and regulation of all kinds of social, subscription, mercantile and other libraries, much on the same lines as were found necessary in other countries, in order to give such associations legal standing and recognition. In some of the States laws have been enacted providing for the payment of an annual grant to proprietary libraries, on condition that they are made free to the general public for reference purposes. This plan of utilizing existing library facilities for the public benefit is common to both the United States and our own colonies, and there are many less effective ways of securing reading privileges at a comparatively cheap rate. It would add enormously to the educational resources of London, for example, if, in return for an annual Government grant, the general public could have access to the reading-rooms of some of the more important literary, scientific and artistic libraries, especially those which are rich in the current periodical literature of other countries.

In the "Report of the Commissioner of Education" for the United States, 1895-96, vol. 1, there is a very elaborate account of the "Library Legislation in the United States," to which reference must be made by those who want minute details of

the laws of the different States of the Union. Here it is only possible to deal with the laws affecting school and municipal libraries, and to give typical examples of the legislation in each class.

In 1835 the New York State Legislature passed a law establishing libraries for the school districts of the State. These libraries were much extended and improved by later laws, and till 1853 they practically supplied the place of the public libraries. Other States established these school district libraries, open to scholars and all citizens, Massachusetts and Michigan following in 1837, Connecticut in 1839, Iowa and Rhode Island in 1840, and others at various dates down to 1876, when Colorado passed a similar law. The failure of this system in many places led to the first Town Library Law being passed by the Legislature of Massachusetts in 1848, under which the City of Boston was authorized to establish a free public library and levy a tax of $5,000, or £1,000, for its support. This was the first State law passed in America, and in 1849 New Hampshire passed a general law for the whole State. Massachusetts next extended its library law from the City of Boston to the whole State in 1851, and Maine followed in 1854. The other northern States followed slowly, till now nearly all the States, save a few in the South and West, have laws enabling municipal libraries to be established. Previous to this, most of the States, as they became incorporated in the Union, established libraries for the use of the legislative councils in the capital towns of each State, and these State Libraries, as they are called, constitute a very important class of public library in the United States. The first actual municipal library opened in the United States was that of the town of Peterboro', in New Hampshire, which in 1833 established and supported out of the local taxes a public library, which still exists. From this it appears that there was nothing either in the Federal or State law of the United States to prevent any town from supporting a library at the public expense if it saw fit. The principle of interference in local affairs by central authorities is, however, a thoroughly Anglo-Saxon convention

or principle, and though the Federal Legislature in America does not impose local laws on the State authorities, these State legislatures impose the same restrictions upon local municipal authorities which are common throughout the British Empire.

The main provisions of the State library laws of America are:—

(1) The adoption of the library laws of the State by any city or municipal council, with or without the petition or consent of the ratepayers. The practice differs in the various States, but it is permissive and not compulsory in every State.

(2) Power to levy a rate for the establishment and support of municipal libraries, varying from the fraction of a mill per dollar on the taxable value of the town to any sum the council may see fit to levy.

(3) Power to appoint trustees and to do everything necessary for the equipment and efficient administration of the libraries.

It is important to note that in the United States the basis of taxation is entirely different from what it is in this country. Here rental, minus a certain deduction, is adopted as the unit from which to make up the rateable value of a town. In the United States the value of all property is taken, instead of mere rental, as the unit from which the rateable value is built up. If a house in England is worth £420, and rents at £36, it would be assessed at about £30, and the library rate would be levied upon the £30, producing 2s. 6d. In the United States the same house, plus contents, would pay rates on the £420, being the value of the property, but on a smaller poundage. One mill on the dollar is the thousandth part of 4s. 2d., or about one-twentieth of 1d. If, therefore, the library rate in an American town is 1 mill, or the twentieth of 1d., on the dollar, property valued at £420, or $2,100, would pay a total library rate of about 8s. 6d. Other classes of property, such as live stock, crops, etc., are also taxed, so that in America the produce of even a comparatively small library rate is much greater than

in a town the same size in England. For example: the town of Lawrence, in Massachusetts, has a population of 62,559, and its library income is nearly £3,000; while in Reading, with a population of 72,000, the 1d. library rate produces only £1,716. Again, Pittsburgh, with a population of 321,000, appropriates £26,000 for its libraries; while Bristol, with a population of 328,000, can only raise £6,500 from the produce of a 1d. rate. It is the same all over the United States, and this fact should always be kept in mind when comparisons are being made between the library systems of the two countries.

There is one other point which should be mentioned as illustrative of the difference of the methods of the United Kingdom and the United States in regard to the adoption of the library laws by municipalities. In those States of America where a poll of the citizens is required before the libraries can be established, no special vote is taken, but instead, at the annual election of councillors, the voting papers bear the question: Are you in favour of a library being established at a tax of — mills on the dollar? Thus at one election the municipal council is returned to office, and their library policy dictated to them by the ratepayers. The liberal library laws of the United States have produced a great number of very large and magnificently equipped public libraries, which are administered by well-educated officers, who are paid adequate salaries for the work they accomplish. No other country in the world can show such a scheme of libraries, closely in touch with all the other educational bodies, and recognized by the State as part of the national system of education.

In one respect the library authorities in the United States have shown more wisdom than those of other countries, by establishing Boards of Library Commissioners charged with the responsibility of supervising the library work of the whole of a State. These Library Commissions are established in some of the States, but not in all, and are generally composed of five or six educational experts. They have power to advise in the establishment of local libraries in every respect as re-

gards selection of books, cataloguing, etc., and may expend public money in the purchase of books for libraries in towns which do not possess municipal libraries. They are also authorized to pay for all clerical work required in connexion with the Board, to issue reports and collect statistics, and in some cases to organize travelling libraries. All these State Library Commissions issue handbooks, and those of New Jersey and Wisconsin will give some idea of the important work in co-ordinating the library forces of America now being accomplished by these Commissions.

9. No country in Europe has a library law like that in force in Britain and the United States, but a certain amount of recognition is accorded to public libraries by the State in most countries. Municipal libraries exist in France under State direction, but very few towns in other countries have done much to foster public libraries in their midst. In some cases endowed or university or royal libraries are recognized or partly supported by the State or the municipal authorities, but so far no European nation has passed a general library law which gives communities direct control of the establishment, organization and support of public libraries by means of a tax or rate.

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CHAPTER II.

ADOPTION OF ACTS, FOUNDATION AND COMMITTEES.

14. Methods of Adopting the Public Libraries Acts.—There are only two methods prescribed by the Libraries Acts under which public libraries can be established. In rural parishes a parish meeting, called upon a requisition signed by ten or more voters and held at the time and place appointed, may adopt the Acts by a bare majority of those present and voting. At least seven days' notice of the meeting must be given, but it is better to allow a month. Should a poll be demanded, it must be conducted by ballot according to the rules laid down by the Local Government Board. Full particulars, including forms of requisition, will be found in Chambers and Fovargue's *Law Relating to Public Libraries*, 1899, and in the authorities quoted at the end of this chapter.

15. As already stated in Section 4, any county borough, urban district, burgh or other similar authority may adopt the Libraries Acts by a resolution of the council, without reference to the voters. A month's notice of motion must be given in the customary form, and a bare majority of the council can pass the resolution. A copy of the resolution adopting the Acts must be sent to the Local Government Board, and it must also be advertised in the local papers and posted on the doors of all the churches and chapels—where such notices are usually posted. It is best to make the resolution state a particular date when the Acts are to come into operation, as is required by the Scotch Act. In some places the Acts after being adopted have been allowed to become a dead-letter owing to neglect of this necessary precaution. As the urban districts

and burghs are given power to fix the amount of rate within the limitation of one penny, it is not necessary to include in the resolution adopting the Acts any stipulation as to the amount of rate. A useful form of resolution is as follows:—

That the Public Libraries Act (state date of principal Act) and all subsequent Acts amending the same be, and are hereby adopted, for the county borough of ——— (state place), and shall be in force throughout the borough (or other area) on and after the.....day of..... (state year).

16. As the power of adopting the Acts in populous areas is now vested in the local authorities, there is no longer, as formerly, any need to educate opinion among ratepayers as to the necessity for establishing public libraries. Most of the propagandist literature of a useful kind appears in the various books of Mr. Thomas Greenwood (*Public Libraries*, *British Library Year Book*, etc.), and these should be consulted by any one in a rural parish who desires to raise the question in a practical form. As regards urban districts the initiative may safely be left in the hands of the intelligent members of council, who will sooner or later move in the direction of placing their districts in line with all the other large towns in the country.

17. At present about 510 towns and districts in the United Kingdom have adopted the Public Libraries Acts, and this number includes every large town in the country. The principal areas still unprovided with public libraries are the Metropolitan Boroughs of Marylebone and Bethnal Green, and the towns and districts of Bacup, Crewe, Dover, Jarrow, Scarborough, Swindon, Weymouth, Llandudno, Govan, Leith, Pollokshaws and Wishaw.

18. **Endowments.**—Little need be said about the foundation of public libraries by endowment or bequest. The wills of Stephen Mitchell and George Baillie, of Glasgow, are models of what a liberal bequest should be, both as regards the amounts bequeathed and the conditions laid down for the formation of the library itself. The practical condition attached to all the gifts made by Mr. Andrew Carnegie and Mr. J. Passmore Edwards

for public library purposes should be adopted by every benefactor who proposes to found a library. This is the very sensible one that, if the gift of money is accepted by the community, the local authority must adopt the Public Libraries Act in order to maintain the library in a state of efficiency for all time. The only alteration suggested in the form of future bequests is that, when money is offered to a small town on the condition that it adopts the Libraries Acts, the whole of the gift should not take the form of a building fund. Small towns usually have very inadequate incomes from the library rate, and for this reason it would be wise if a fair proportion of the gift was directed to be invested as a book fund. A comparatively huge library building without books, is not quite as useful to the people as a much less ambitious building, provided with a fund which permits of the annual purchase of £50 to £100 worth of books, independent of the library rate.

19. Appointment of Committees.—The first step after the Libraries Acts have been adopted by a local authority will be the appointment of a committee, and it is desirable that only capable men should be elected. The best interests of the library will be served by a committee consisting of good business men and literary or professional men or women, in about equal proportions. It is quite evident that the legislature did not contemplate the formation of public libraries by committees of the rank and file of local authorities, who are chiefly concerned with paving, drainage and other equally material matters. By Section 15, Sub-section 3, of the "Public Libraries Act, 1892," it is ordained that "an urban authority may if it think fit appoint a committee and delegate to it all or any of its powers and duties under this section, and the said committee shall to the extent of such delegation be deemed to be the library authority. Persons appointed to be members of the committee need not be members of the urban authority." The "Public Libraries (Ireland) Amendment Act, 1877," gives similar power to elect members outside the local authority. Section 4 ordains that "the committee in which the general management, regulation

and control of such libraries, museums or schools may be vested under the provisions of the 12th Section of the principal Act, may consist in part of persons not members of the council or board or commissioners". By the "Public Libraries Consolidation (Scotland) Act, 1887," Section 18 ordains that the local authority shall "appoint a committee, consisting of not less than ten nor more than twenty members, half of whom shall be chosen from amongst the magistrates and council, or board, as the case may be, and the remaining half from amongst the householders of the burgh or parish other than the magistrates and council, or board, and three members of such committee shall form a quorum". It is further ordained, Section 21, that this committee "shall manage, regulate and control all libraries and museums established under this Act, or to which this Act applies: and shall have power to do all things necessary for such management". It is thus clear that local authorities are fully empowered to select the best expert advice it is possible to obtain in the district, and that the administration of the library should not rest entirely in the hands of the local authority. It is therefore advisable that library committees should be composed of members selected from among the best qualified citizens, with a good proportion of members of the local authority.

20. Constitution of Committees.—The portions of the Acts already quoted make it plain that in Scotland the library committees shall be independent bodies, with power to provide everything necessary, without requiring the sanction of the local authorities, or doing more than from time to time reporting their proceedings. In Ireland, under Section 12 of the principal Act, "the general management, regulation and control of such libraries and museums, etc., shall be, as to any borough, vested in and exercised by the council or board, and as to any town, in and by the town commissioners, *or such committee as they respectively may from time to time appoint, who may from time to time purchase and provide the necessary fuel, books, appoint and dismiss officers, make rules*," etc. This

approximates closely to the English law, which differs from that of the Scottish, in leaving the power of appointing an independent or semi-independent library committee in the discretion of the local authority. The English Act has already been quoted in the previous section, and it now remains to give reasons why every Public Library Committee should be independent of the control of the local authority, save for certain purposes. The fact that, in Scotland, the hybrid composition of the committee is regarded as a reason for making it practically independent of the local authority, offers a strong argument in favour of a similar course being pursued in England and Ireland. A mixed committee is entitled to act without the special sanction of the local authority, if only for the reason that all its members cannot take part in the ratifying proceedings of the council or board. It seems illogical to invite capable citizens who are not members of the council to pass certain resolutions and then submit them for confirmation to a council on which they have no vote or voice. Furthermore, a committee of any kind appointed to administer an Act, like the Public Libraries Act, which lays down clearly what may be done and how much may be expended, does not require the same kind of oversight and control as an ordinary committee appointed for some municipal purpose with comparatively unlimited powers of expenditure. No committee appointed for an educational purpose should be subject to the delays and difficulties caused by having to submit all its proceedings for confirmation by a superior authority. All these arguments furnish reasons why local authorities in England and Ireland should follow Scotland in giving Public Library Committees a complete or partial delegation of powers under the Public Libraries Acts.

21. **Delegation of Powers.**—A delegation of powers under the various sections of the Acts quoted should provide for a fair measure of independence for the committee, with a fair share of general control on the part of the local authority. As a matter of policy, as well as in the public interest, it is very desirable

to maintain harmonious relations between a central board and its acting committees, and for these reasons information as to the proceedings of a committee should always be available. But, for the reasons already set forth, a Public Library Committee should be a *reporting* and not merely a *recommending* body. With the exception of public libraries in the Metropolitan Boroughs, which are compelled by Section 8 (3) of the "London Government Act, 1899," to receive the sanction of the Borough Council and its Finance Committee for expenditures over £50, every Public Library Committee in England and Ireland should be constituted under a special delegation of powers, such as was contemplated and authorized by the Acts already quoted. A fair and workable form of delegation of powers, which has been adopted with good results, is as follows :—

That the [name of authority] hereby delegate to the Public Library Committee all the powers and duties vested in it as the Library Authority under the Public Libraries Acts, 1892, and all subsequent amendments, with the following reservations :—

1. The sanction and raising of loans for new buildings or other purposes.
2. The making and collection of the annual library rate.
3. The confirmation of agreements with adjoining library authorities for the joint use of libraries.
4. The confirmation of the appointment or dismissal of the librarian.
5. The sanction of any scheme for the formation of branch libraries.
6. The proceedings of the Public Library Committee to be reported monthly to the [name of authority], but only for confirmation and sanction as regards Clauses 1 to 5 of this constitution.
7. The librarian to act as clerk to the Public Library Committee.

As regards Metropolitan Borough Councils, it may be desirable to add a clause to the effect that no expenditure exceeding £50 be incurred without an estimate being first obtained by the Finance Committee of the Borough Council. But it is doubtful, if even this restriction is necessary, if, when the rate is made, the Borough Finance Committee pass an estimate for the whole amount of the public library rate, to be expended on general library purposes according to a budget or scheme

prepared by the Public Library Committee. This will get over the difficulty of having to obtain fresh estimates every time £50 worth of books is ordered. The "Public Libraries Act (Amendments) Act, 1901," contains a clause making it quite clear that for library purposes a Metropolitan Borough is an urban district.

22. Standing Orders.—The standing orders or bye-laws regulating Public Library Committees need not be very elaborate. Generally, they should be the same as those governing other committees of the local authority, with the exceptions as to powers. A chairman should be elected annually by the committee. The committee should be elected annually by the local authority, and the number of members should be small rather than large. The needs of districts differ, but a Public Library Committee of over twelve is more likely to be an encumbrance than a help to the institution. A meeting should be held once a month at least. Reports of proceedings should be submitted to the local authority at least once a month. Three members should form a quorum. A rota of visitors should be fixed to visit the libraries between meetings of the committee, and report on their condition or needs. Sub-committees may be formed for book selection, finance or special purposes. In these cases no quorum need be fixed. The committee or a special finance sub-committee should regularly examine the accounts and petty-cash disbursements and receipts of the librarian or clerk. The committee should control their own clerk, who ought to be the librarian. The Public Libraries Acts require that a separate account be kept of receipts and expenditure from the library rate, and library committees should see that this is done in all cases where the accounts are kept and payments made by the council officials.

23. Duties of Committees.—To a considerable extent these are fixed by the delegation of powers granted and the standing orders adopted. But there are certain matters of control and policy which every library committee should regularly supervise. These will appear clear if set out in regular order as follows :—

1. General oversight of buildings, staff and the work of the various departments of the library.
2. Careful supervision of the selection of books.
3. Compilation and revision of public rules and regulations.
4. Regular checking of accounts and expenditures, including those of all officers.
5. Regular meetings on fixed dates, at least once a month.
6. Constant visits to the library by members of the committee in rotation.
7. Every member of committee should become acquainted with the elements of public library administration, and for this purpose should possess copies of all the live Acts of Parliament.

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CHAPTER III.

FINANCE, LOANS, ACCOUNTS, REPORTS.

26. The Library Rate.—The general library Acts passed for Ireland, Scotland and England all limit the amount to be raised by rate for library purposes to one penny in the pound on the annual rateable rental of all properties within the area, with certain exceptions or modifications as to gardens and agricultural lands. Great doubt exists as to what is meant by a penny rate and on what value it is to be levied. Some authorities maintain that the income from a penny rate can only represent the net sum realized by a penny on the rateable value, after all deductions have been made on account of empty houses and other irrecoverable items. Against this may be set the actual practice in several places, of paying over the full sum which a penny rate on the nominal rateable value would produce, without any deductions whatsoever. As the Public Libraries Acts have placed a limitation on the amount of the library rate, it may be assumed that the libraries were intended to benefit to the full extent of the rateable value. At any rate the Acts are silent on the point, and practice differs so much that we have no hesitation in saying that a public library, because of the present limitation, and because some places now give the full product, is entitled to the full amount which a penny rate would yield when calculated on the full rateable value of the town or district, without deduction of any kind, either for unproductive properties or cost of collection. It has been decided that no deduction can be made from the income produced by the library rate on account of the cost of collection, and as this rate is now collected as part of a general or other unlimited rate, it seems very unfair to saddle it with any part of the cost of collection. If it were collected as a

separate rate, or with rates similarly limited by Act of Parliament, the position would be different. The difference between the amount paid over to public libraries and the actual sums which would be produced were the rate charged on the full rateable value is sometimes very considerable. The losses range from over 20 to 5 per cent., and thus a considerable limit is placed upon the book-purchasing power of a large number of libraries.

27. Unexpended Balances.—In some places the local authority have appropriated unexpended balances of the public library rate and applied them to other local purposes. This action is clearly illegal, and could only have been taken by those who are ignorant of the decisions of the Local Government Board on the point. It is true the Acts do not specify how unexpended balances of the library rate are to be dealt with, but it is equally true that as the money was raised under a special Act for a strictly defined purpose, it cannot be diverted to any other purpose, nor can it be carried forward as a portion of the library rate for a succeeding year. No doubt the wording of the Act is responsible for the interpretation which has been put upon the section entitled "Limitations on expenditure for purpose of Act". It reads: "A rate or addition to a rate shall not be levied for the purposes of this Act for any one financial year in any library district to an amount exceeding one penny in the pound". The Local Government Board have decided that any unexpended balances of the library income must be carried forward to next year's library account, without prejudice to the next year's library income. This decision has been upheld by all the district auditors of the Local Government Board, and it is difficult to understand the reason why a certain number of places still cling to the belief that the library rate can be further limited by this illegal procedure of appropriating unexpended balances. Committees who are threatened with this action can always protect themselves against the injustice by taking care that there are no balances to appropriate; but it will prevent them from saving a little money for necessary book purchases, cleaning or other pur-

poses. It should be pointed out, furthermore, that the section of the Act above quoted does not really refer to the total *amount* to be raised by rate in a given year, but only to the *poundage* or rate which may be charged for library purposes, namely, not more than a penny in the pound. The question of the *product* of this rate of a penny is not mentioned anywhere in the Acts, and it is this lack of clear definition—the failure to distinguish the amount of a rate from the total amount which it will annually produce—which is responsible for most of the difficulties hitherto met with in administering the Libraries Acts.

28. Loans.—The Libraries Acts give pretty full instructions as to loans for public library purposes. In England under the principal Act "every library authority, with the sanction of the Local Government Board . . . may borrow money for the purposes of this Act on the security of any fund or rate applicable for those purposes". In parishes the regulations for borrowing prescribed by the "Local Government Act, 1894," are to apply. As a preliminary to borrowing, an inquiry is held locally by a Local Government Board inspector, who receives evidence as to proposed buildings, sites, amount required, etc., and also hears objections to the proposal. The Local Government Board print bills announcing the inquiry, and these must be posted and paid for by the library authority in the usual way. At such inquiries full particulars should be prepared as to income, date of adopting Acts, etc., as well as particulars of the scheme proposed to be carried out. After the inquiry is held it is generally about three months later before the sanction of the Board is received. This states the amount sanctioned and for what period the money can be borrowed for sites, buildings, furniture or books, as the case may be.

The security for loans is declared by the "Public Health Act, 1875," Section 233, to be the "credit of any fund or all or any rates or rate out of which they are authorized to defray expenses incurred by them in the execution of this Act". And it is further laid down that "they may mortgage to the persons by or on behalf of whom such sums are advanced any such fund or rates or rate". It thus appears that neither library buildings nor the library rate

can be mortgaged for the purposes of library loans, but only the rate or rates out of which the expenses of the Public Health Act are paid. This practically means the general rate of a district.

29. The Local Government Board will fix the period for which sums of money for particular purposes may be borrowed. Generally the periods are as follows :—

For sites or lands	60 or 50 years.
„ buildings (including fixtures like counters, screens, wall and standard bookcases, wall newspaper slopes, barriers, etc.) .	30 years.*
„ books	10 „
„ furniture (tables, chairs, desks, and movable furniture only) .	10 „

The money may be borrowed from the Public Works Loan Commissioners, County Councils, Banks, Friendly Societies or private individuals. The rate of interest varies, according to the cheapness or otherwise of money at the time. 3½ per cent. may be regarded as a fair average interest, but library authorities have borrowed for as low as 3 per cent.

30. The methods of repayment vary, and this must be entirely a matter for local arrangement, and should follow the practice in vogue with other municipal loans. An equalized repayment of principal and interest on the annuity system has the advantage of distributing the payments uniformly over the whole period, and of placing part of the burden on succeeding ratepayers as well as upon those who establish the library. This is much fairer than making the pioneer ratepayers practically bear the whole foundation cost of establishing an institution which increases in its value to the community as it progresses. On the other hand buildings are sure to depreciate in value, and the question of repairs is a constant one, so that some authorities maintain that loans on structures should be paid off by annually diminishing instalments of principal and interest. In Scotland repayments of principal must be

* A loan for purchasing an existing building will not be sanctioned by the Local Government Board for a period exceeding twenty or twenty-five years.

made from a sinking fund which is to be formed from a certain proportion of the rate put aside annually.

31. The arrangements for negotiating a loan and drawing up the necessary deeds should be placed in the hands of a solicitor, but in many cases the accountant or town clerk of the district is responsible for all arrangements, and will see that the deed is duly sealed as prescribed by the Act.

In connexion with this it should be noted that by Section 237 of the "Public Health Act, 1875," a register of the mortgages on each rate must be kept, and that "within fourteen days after the date of any mortgage an entry shall be made in the register of the number and date thereof, and of the names and description of the parties thereto, as stated in the deed". Furthermore, "every such register shall be open to public inspection during office hours at the said office [local authority's office] without fee or reward". As the auditor will call for this register, the clerk to the library authority should see that it is provided, if the local authority have not already done so.

32. The arrangements for loans in Ireland and Scotland are somewhat similar to those just described. In Ireland no power to borrow was given under the principal Act, but the Amendment Act of 1877 gives the power, provided the commissioners of His Majesty's Treasury approve. The Commissioners of Public Works in Ireland may lend, and power is given to mortgage, as security, either the borough fund, town fund, or the library rate itself. In Scotland the local authority may borrow, without any other consent, on mortgage or bond on the security of the library rate, a sum or sums not exceeding the capital sum represented by one-fourth part of the library rate, capitalized at the rate of twenty years' purchase of such sum. A sinking fund must be formed, consisting of an annual sum equal to one-fiftieth part of the money borrowed, which is to be invested and applied to the purpose of extinguishing the debt.

33. Before leaving the question of loans, it may be well to offer a word of warning against the danger of overborrowing, which has very seriously crippled the work of various libraries. In some places as much as one-half the library income has to be devoted to

the repayment of the principal and interest of loans; in others, one-third is similarly spent. One-fourth of the library income is the maximum which in any case should be set apart for the purpose.

34. Accounts.—By the principal English Act, Section 20 (1), it is ordained that "separate accounts shall be kept of the receipts and expenditure under this Act of every library authority and its officers, and those accounts shall be audited in like manner and with the like incidents and consequences, in the case of a library authority being an urban authority, and of its officers, as the accounts of the receipts and expenditure of that authority and its officers under the Public Health Acts". In Ireland the same provisions apply, that is, library accounts are to be kept and audited like those of the local authority, and copies of the accounts are to be sent within one month after auditing to the Lord Lieutenant. In Scotland the accounts are to be kept separately in special books, and are to be audited by "one or more competent auditors". In all cases the books are to be open to public inspection, and in Scotland abstracts of the accounts are to be inserted in one or more newspapers published or circulated in the district.

No special system of library book-keeping has been laid down, the nearest approach to a form being that prescribed by an order of the Local Government Board, dated 26th November, 1892, for parishes whose library accounts are audited in like manner to those of Poor Law Guardians. In Greenwood's *Public Libraries*, fourth edition, 1894, pages 343-345, some details are given of this system, and the first edition of this *Manual* also gives specimens of forms, etc.

35. Financial Statement.—The form of financial statement for public libraries in parishes, prescribed by the Local Government Board, alluded to in Section 34, is the best for all purposes. As shown in the section on Annual Estimates, it provides for every kind of receipt and expenditure. Printed blanks giving the whole of the items copied from the L. G. B. Order of 1892 have been published. In addition to a blank tabular form for showing particulars of loans, etc., the statement includes spaces for the undernoted items, all duly set out to form a balance sheet:—

FINANCIAL STATEMENT.

Receipts.	Expenditure.
Rates.	Buildings, repairs, maintenance.
Fines and penalties.	Books, periodicals, etc.
Donations and subscriptions.	Salaries and remuneration of officers and assistants.
From parliamentary grants.	Establishment charges not before included.
From other local authorities.	Loans: Principal repaid { Out of invested Sinking Fund. / Otherwise.
From sale of securities in which sinking fund is invested.	,, Interest.
From all other sources, specifying them.	Payments to other local authorities.
Sale of catalogues, etc.	Other expenditure.
etc.	

36. **Audit.**—In cases where library accounts are audited under the "District Auditors' Act, 1879," it is imperative that all the forms and consequences should be borne in mind. District auditors have power to surcharge expenditures for items which in their opinion cannot be legally incurred under the provisions of the Public Libraries Acts, and it should also be remembered that the committee-men who sign the disputed cheque are held liable. The powers vested in library authorities are so wide that it is very doubtful if some district auditors are not exceeding their authority by objecting, as they have done in some places, to payments for publications, subscriptions to societies, expenses of lectures, and other items. In cases of surcharge appeal for relief should be made to the Local Government Board, when it is a first offence, or when there is good grounds for challenging the decision of the auditor. The cost of auditing accounts is laid down in the "District Auditors' Act, 1879," according to the following scale. The library authority is required to purchase the necessary stamps to cover the amount:—

Under £20			=	£0	5	£2,500 and under		£5,000	=	£5	0
£20 and under		£50	=	0	10	5,000	,,	10,000	=	10	0
50	,,	100	=	1	0	10,000	,,	20,000	=	15	0
100	,,	500	=	2	0	20,000	,,	50,000	=	20	0
500	,,	1,000	=	3	0	50,000	,,	100,000	=	30	0
1,000	,,	2,500	=	4	0	100,000 and upwards			=	50	0

Needless to say, very few libraries will have to pay more than £10. The charges for auditing by a firm of chartered accountants are generally according to an agreed scale.

37. **Annual Estimates or Budgets.**—The Scotch principal Act is the only one which requires an annual estimate or

budget to be prepared by the library authority for the information of the local authority. Section 30 of the Act of 1887 provides that "The committee shall in the month of April in every year make up, or cause to be made up, an estimate of the sums required in order to defray the interest of any money borrowed, the payment of the sinking fund, and the expense of maintaining and managing all libraries and museums under its control for the year after Whitsunday then next to come, and for the purpose of purchasing the books, articles and things authorized by this Act," etc. This estimate has to be submitted to the local authority, who "shall provide the amount required out of the library rate to be levied by it, and shall pay over to the committee the sum necessary for the annual expenditure by it in terms of its estimate". By the standing orders of most local authorities yearly or half-yearly estimates have to be prepared and submitted by the various committees, and as practice varies everywhere, it will be well for the library authority to follow the local practice.

38. Local circumstances alter the conditions so materially in every place that it is not possible to prepare specimen budgets from existing financial statements. Indeed, the utter lack of uniformity would alone have prevented this had there been no other factors equally disconcerting. The figures given in the two Tables (Nos. 39, 40) are more of the nature of suggestions than anything else, and simply give an idea of what is considered a fair distribution of varying incomes. The provision made for different services is based on actual results in several libraries, and, excepting salaries and loans, the estimates may be regarded as fair approximations to the usual expenditures. No account has been taken of sums derived from incidental receipts such as fines, sale of catalogues, etc., which have been left as a kind of floating balance, available for the repayment of a loan for site, or to reinforce any item which may require increasing. Expenditure on account of museums, art galleries, lectures and similar departments is not provided for in these budgets, but branch libraries are contemplated for places with £2,000 income and upwards.

39. Estimates of Annual Expenditure for Libraries of varying Incomes, with Loans.

	Per Cent.	£20,000.	£10,000.	£[illegible],000.	£5,000.	£4,000.	£3,000.	£2,000.	£1,000.	£100.
		£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£ s.
Buildings, 13 per cent.—										
Lighting . . .	6	1,200	600	480	300	240	180	120	60	6 0
Heating . . .	1	200	100	80	50	40	30	20	10	1 0
Water	½	100	50	40	25	20	15	10	5	0 10
Fittings and Repairs .	3	600	300	240	150	120	90	60	30	3 0
Cleaning . . .	2	400	200	160	100	80	60	40	20	2 0
Insurance . . .	½	100	50	40	25	20	15	10	5	0 10
Books, etc., 25 per cent.—										
New Books . . .	8	1,600	800	640	400	320	240	160	80	8 0
Old Books . . .	4	800	400	320	200	160	120	80	40	4 0
Replacements . .	2	400	200	160	100	80	60	40	20	2 0
Periodicals . . .	6	1,200	600	480	300	240	180	120	60	6 0
Bookbinding . . .	5	1,000	500	400	250	200	150	100	50	5 0
Salaries, 37 per cent. .		7,400	3,700	2,960	1,850	1,480	1,110	740	370	37 0
Establishment, 7 per cent.—										
Stationery . . .	2	400	200	160	100	80	60	40	20	2 0
Printing . . .	3	600	300	240	150	120	90	60	30	3 0
Rates	½	100	50	40	25	20	15	10	5	0 10
Postages, etc. . .	½	100	50	40	25	20	15	10	5	0 10
Miscellaneous . .	1	200	100	80	50	40	30	20	10	1 0
Loans or Rent, 18 per cent.—	18	3,600	1,800	1,440	900	720	540	360	180	18 0

40. Estimates of Annual Expenditure for Libraries of varying Incomes, without Loans.

	Per Cent.	£20,000.	£10,000.	£8,000.	£5,000.	£4,000.	£3,000.	£2,000.	£1,000.	£100.
		£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£ s.
Buildings, 16 per cent.—										
Lighting	7	1,400	700	560	350	280	210	140	70	7 0
Heating	1	200	100	80	50	40	30	20	10	1 0
Water	½	100	50	40	25	20	15	10	5	0 10
Fittings	4	800	400	320	200	160	120	80	40	4 0
Cleaning	3	600	300	240	150	120	90	60	30	3 0
Insurance	½	100	50	40	25	20	15	10	5	0 10
Books, etc., 31 per cent.—										
New Books	9	1,800	900	720	450	360	270	180	90	9 0
Old Books	5	1,000	500	400	250	200	150	100	50	5 0
Replacements	3	600	300	240	150	120	90	60	30	3 0
Periodicals	8	1,600	800	640	400	320	240	160	80	8 0
Bookbinding	6	1,200	600	480	300	240	180	120	60	6 0
Salaries, 45 per cent.		9,000	4,500	3,600	2,250	1,800	1,350	900	450	45 0
Establishment, 8 per cent—										
Stationery	2½	500	250	200	125	100	75	50	25	2 10
Printing	3½	700	350	280	175	140	105	70	35	3 10
Rates	½	100	50	40	25	20	15	10	5	0 10
Postages	½	100	50	40	25	20	15	10	5	0 10
Miscellaneous	1	200	100	80	50	40	30	20	10	1 0

41. Contracts, Agreements, Requisitions.—Contracts for regular supplies should be renewed annually. The principal items of this kind are :—

Books, bookbinding, periodicals and newspapers, printing, stationery, cleaning materials.

Local sentiment is generally in favour of procuring all supplies locally, where possible, and when this can be done without absolute disadvantage to the library it is the most convenient course. Tenders can be invited either by public advertisement or on the nomination of members of committee and the librarian. To begin with, public advertisement is, perhaps, the fairest way; afterwards, quality of service and other considerations will decide. Specifications should be prepared and sent out according to requirements.

42. All specifications and contracts should be carefully preserved. The former should be entered up in a specification book, which need be but an ordinary foolscap folio blank book, ruled faint. Accepted contracts should either be filed in boxes or guard books, or copied into a contracts book similar to the specification book. Accepted estimates for occasional work should be fastened to the accounts. It is important to be able to lay hands on any given document or its terms without the slightest delay. All tenders for regular supplies and estimates for occasional work should be opened in committee, in meeting duly convened, unless by special resolution the librarian or a sub-committee is authorized to deal with them. Envelopes, printed with the address of the library and having the words "Tender for ———" printed boldly in one corner, should be enclosed with all invitations for estimates to prevent the risk of accidental opening.

43. In connexion with contracts it is important to note that Public Library Committees and officers are subject to the penal provisions of the "Public Bodies Corrupt Practices Act, 1889," 52 & 53 Vict., c. 69, in the event of bribes or commissions being given or received in connexion with pending contracts or supplies. As this does not seem to be generally known, the essential words of the Act are quoted :—

"Every person who corruptly solicits or receives, or agrees to receive, for himself, or for any other person, any gift, loan, fee, reward, or advantage, as an inducement to any member, officer, or servant of a public body, doing or forbearing to do anything in respect of any matter or transaction in which such public body is concerned; and every person who shall, with the like object, corruptly give, promise, or offer any gift, loan, fee, reward, or advantage to any person, whether for the benefit of that person or of another, shall be guilty of a misdemeanour. Any one convicted of such an offence shall be liable to imprisonment for two years, or to a fine of £500, or to both imprisonment and fine; and, in addition, be liable to pay to such public body the amount or value of any gift, loan, fee, or reward so received by him; and be adjudged incapable of holding any public office for seven years, and to forfeit any such office held by him," etc.

44. AGREEMENTS for leases, loans, joint use of libraries with adjoining authorities, or between committee and librarian or other persons, should be drawn up by a solicitor. Minor agreements may be drawn up by the library authority, but they should all be stamped with a sixpenny stamp if in connexion with a consideration of £5 and over. The legal limits within which agreements between various kinds of library authorities can be made are duly set forth in the various Public Libraries Acts, and, as these matters seldom arise in the course of ordinary library routine, there is no need further to consider the subject.

45. **Assessment to Rates and Taxes.**—The assessment of public library buildings to rates and taxes has been for long a burning question, and is still far from final settlement. The limitation of the library rate to a penny in the pound has always been considered by library authorities a strong reason why all additional burdens on the meagre income raised thereby should be resisted. But all local authorities and assessment committees did not think likewise, and a good deal of friction resulted.

In 1843 was passed "An Act to exempt from County, Borough, Parochial, and other Local Rates, Land and Buildings occupied by Scientific or Literary Societies," 6 & 7 Vict., c. 36, under which a few public libraries obtained certificates of exemption from the payment of local rates, from the Registrar of Friendly

Societies, as allowed by this Act. Some of these certificates were recognized by the rating authorities, others were ignored, and it was frequently maintained that a public library was not a scientific or literary society within the meaning of the Act. In 1896, however, a complete change took place as regards this point, by a decision of the House of Lords, which ruled that public libraries were literary societies or institutions for the purposes of the "Income Tax Act of 1842," under which such institutions were granted exemption from the payment of income tax. Although the case, brought by the Corporation of Manchester against the Surveyor of Income Tax for Manchester, did not directly refer to the Act of 1843, the decision that public libraries were literary institutions effected all that was necessary for the purpose of claiming exemption from local rates under the "Literary Societies Act of 1843". A full report of this case and decision is printed in the *Library* for 1896, in the *Times*, law reports and elsewhere. The effect of this decision was to remove any doubt from the mind of the Registrar of Friendly Societies, who has power under the Act to grant certificates exempting public libraries from the payment of local rates, and as a result many libraries obtained certificates, and now enjoy complete or partial exemption. It is not necessary to quote the Act of 1843, which can be obtained for one penny from the King's printers, but the procedure requisite for obtaining a certificate of exemption may be noted.

46. An application claiming exemption under the 1843 Act must be addressed to the Registrar of Friendly Societies at London, Edinburgh or Dublin, as the case may require. With this must be enclosed a copy of the rules and regulations of the library, signed by the chairman and three members of committee, and countersigned by the clerk or librarian. These rules must include the following, or others in similar terms :—

1. "The —— Public Library is a society established for purposes of literature and science exclusively."

2. "The library is supported in part by a rate levied in accordance with the Public Libraries Acts, and in part by

annual voluntary contributions of money and gifts of books and periodicals. The Library Committee shall not make any dividend, gift, division or bonus in money unto or between any of the members."

These two rules are absolutely necessary to a successful application, and, if not already incorporated, should be included by special resolution of the library authority before application is made. It is best to send printed copies of the rules, and it should be noted that three identical copies, all signed, must be sent. On these the registrar endorses his certificate, and sends one to the Clerk of the Peace for the district, one to the library authority, and retains one. The form of certificate usually attached is as follows:—

It is hereby certified that this society is entitled to the benefit of the Act 6 & 7 Vict., c. 36, intituled "An Act to exempt from County, Borough, Parochial and other Local Rates, Lands and Buildings occupied by Scientific or Literary Societies".

Date.

The application should show that annual voluntary contributions of money, books and periodicals are received, but there is no direction laid down as to the amount of voluntary contributions which will pass muster. The point is somewhat vague, but it may be assumed that the amount received from gifts, subscriptions, sales, books, periodicals, etc., need not form a substantial proportion of the income. As the English Registrar accepts donations in kind as annual voluntary contributions, it is only necessary to value these to make up a respectable sum.

47. Certificates are not granted as a rule in cases where a charge for admission is made. Furthermore, it is doubtful if the exemption from local rates would be allowed by hostile local

authorities for any occupied portions of library buildings. A caretaker's or librarian's residence would in all probability be separately assessed, if the certificate were otherwise recognized. By a decision of a Court of Quarter Sessions at Liverpool in 1905, it has been decided that the Corporation of Liverpool is liable for local rates on a library building; but it is not possible to say how far this may affect libraries holding these certificates. Legislation is pending, and till something is definitely settled, the question must remain open.

48. The House of Lords' decision already noticed also freed public library buildings from income tax, but it should be distinctly understood that inhabited house duty can be charged for the whole of a building, even if only partly occupied as a residence, when included under one roof, unless it can be shown that the library and residence do not communicate directly with each other.

49. Insurance.—Library buildings and their contents should be fully insured against fire. To ascertain insurable value take the cost of buildings at the contract price, including all charges which would have to be incurred again for rebuilding; furniture at the contract price; lending library books at 3s. 4d. per volume all over; and reference library books at 5s. per volume all over, and thus obtain a total. An allowance is sometimes made for depreciation, but a full covering value is always safe. The policy will state these various items separately for purposes of insurance, but will likely charge a uniform percentage on all. 1s. 6d. per cent. is a fair charge in a good office, but insurances can be effected for as low as 1s. 3d. per cent. Library buildings form a safe risk, and unless in a case of temporary premises with bad surroundings, 1s. 6d. per cent. should be regarded as a maximum charge. Some offices return the premium once in five years or so by way of bonus. Insurance policies should be revised every few years to keep pace with the growth of the library. Paintings, valuable MSS. and rare books must be made the subject of special insurances. The same may be said of temporary exhibitions, especially of

loan articles, which ought to be covered by a policy for the period of the show. Plenty of fire-buckets should be provided in public library buildings to cope with the first outbreak of fire. Hydrants, save in large buildings, are not necessary, on account of their cost and practical inutility. If a fire cannot be checked at its onset by means of buckets, it is time to ring up the fire-brigade.

50. Suggestions on Management.—It is well to keep a book or to provide forms to enable readers to make suggestions on the management of the library. Frequently such suggestions take the form of complaints, but it is a useful thing to allow free opportunity for the expression of public opinion. In some libraries separate books are kept for propositions of new books not in the library and suggestions on management. A simple form, on which the reader can make suggestions on management or of books, is preferable. When these forms are made readily available, and are kept in public view, together with a locked box in which the slips can be lodged through a slit in the lid, they are much more effective as a means of drawing suggestions than special MS. books which have to be asked for. A useful form of slip is the following:—

LIBERTON PUBLIC LIBRARY.

I beg to make the following suggestion (*if a book or periodical, please give publisher and price*) :—

.....

.....

.....

.....

Name.....

Address.....

Date.....

Please fold across and leave in "Suggestions" Box.

FIG. 1.—Suggestion Slip.

A small locked box to contain these, and lettered on side "Suggestions," should be provided. If one of these boxes is placed in each important department of the library, readers will be encouraged to air their views. Even if nothing more valuable should be received than a complaint about a draught or the manner of the librarian, it is better than the dull indifference and apathy which are met with in libraries where readers are discouraged from taking any part in the administration. Occasionally some brilliant, if impossible, suggestions on management are received by means of these slips and boxes, and suggestions of desirable books can always be depended upon. Every means of interesting readers in the work of the library should be adopted, and this will be found a very effective method.

51. Annual Report.—The committee's annual report is the summary and crown of their labours, and should contain a full account of the work and operations of the library in all its departments. There is room for improvement in the form of library reports, and a reform in the right direction would be the excision of elaborate tables of issues, stock, etc., of central and branch libraries in their various departments. These can have interest for nobody, even when fully understood, and they can never convey so tersely and clearly the information which may be so easily summarized in a few brief paragraphs. After all, it is a matter of no importance to any one how many volumes a certain library issued in the month of May, 1906, and all preceding years for the past decade. When one sees a very large library report, crammed with pages of elaborate tables, it suggests a crafty plan to astonish the newspaper men, dazzle the local authority, and cause envy among neighbouring libraries, rather than a plain effort to describe the work and results of a certain period of activity. Plain and clear reports, free from comparisons with other libraries, and giving the main facts without the use of confusing statistical tables, are all that is necessary. The information which a library report ought to convey may be briefly indicated by the following suggested list of topics :—

Title-page.
List of members of committee and library staff.
Table of attendances of members of committee.
Committee's narrative report, based on the figures supplied in the succeeding librarian's report, or appendix of documents.

Librarian's report or appendix of documents on the following matters set out as below. In this the library is treated as *one* institution :—

STOCK.

	Central.		Branches.		Total.		Grand Total.	
Class.	Reference.	Lending.	Reference.	Lending.	Reference.	Lending.	Report Year.	Last Year.
A	000	000	000	000	000	000	0000	0000
B								
C								
D								
etc.								
Total								

Number of volumes added during the year, with proportions purchased and donated. Grand total purchased .. .. Do. donated ..... Number of volumes worn-out and withdrawn. Other particulars in brief paragraph form.

ISSUES.

	Central.		Branches.		Total.		Grand Total.	
Class.	Reference.	Lending.	Reference.	Lending.	Reference.	Lending.	Report Year.	Last Year.
A								
B								
C								
D								
etc.								
Total								
Averages								

Columns for juvenile and other departments must, of course, be included, if they exist.

BORROWERS.

Total number report year and last year. Number holding extra or students' tickets.

Occupations (if thought necessary), sexes, ages. To be briefly summarized.

READING ROOMS.

Attendances at newsrooms, magazine rooms, etc.
List of donations.

Lists of periodicals and annuals (only if no other means of revising printed list is available).

Financial statement. (*See* Section 35.)

Memoranda relating to district, showing population, area, valuation, date when Acts adopted, date of opening building, other leading facts.

REFERENCE LIST OF AUTHORITIES :—

52. Rates and Rating—

Chambers and Fovargue. Law relating to Public Libraries, 1899.

Credland (W. R.) Rating and taxation of public libraries. Greenwood's Year Bk., 1897, p. 45.

Crunden (F. M.) Executive department : general supervision. U. S. Educ. Rept., 1892-1893, v. 1, p. 795.

Kennedy (Mr. Justice) Judgment in Liverpool assessment case. L. A. R., v. 7, p. 286.

Pacy (F.) Borrowing and rating powers under the Public Libraries Acts. L., v. 1, p. 132.

53. Insurance—

Davis (C. T.) Fire prevention and insurance. Greenwood's Year Bk., 1900, p. 53.

Davis (C. T.) Insurance of public libraries. L. W., 1899, p. 121.

Insurance : Discussion. Lib. J., 1893, Conf. no., p. 23.

Poole (R. B.) Fires, protection, insurance. U. S. Educ. Rept., 1892-1893, v. 1, p. 724.

54. Reports—

Crunden (F. M.) Library Reports. Lib. J., 1890, p. 198.

Willcock (W. J.) What should an annual report of a public library contain ? L. A. R., v. 8, p. 363.

DIVISION II.

STAFF.

CHAPTER IV.

LIBRARIAN.

55. Qualifications.—Like the prominent members of every other trade, profession or branch of learning, good librarians are born, not made. No amount of training or experience will create such natural gifts as enthusiasm, originality, initiative and positive genius for the work; but training in sound methods will help to provide a passable substitute for natural aptitude. Experience alone will not prove equally valuable, because it may not have been associated in its course with training in effective methods, and consequently may only represent knowledge of an effete and inefficient class. If all library methods were identical, and of the same standard of advanced excellence, experience alone would equal special training; but owing to the very wide difference between the methods of twenty or thirty years ago, and the more scientific methods of to-day, it is necessary to judge the experience of any librarian by the school in which he has been trained.

56. The physical qualifications of a librarian should include good health, freedom from any deformity, defect or incurable disease, and his or her age should not be less than twenty-five nor more than fifty. Between these limits the most active and intelligent officers are likely to be obtained for new appointments. Age is not so important in cases of promotion, as committees in such instances are guided by first-hand and

accurate knowledge of capabilities. As regards the physical condition of librarians, it may be said generally that the same principles which guide selection in business appointments should be the rule in all library appointments.

The mental attainments of a librarian should be judged mainly by their suitability for the duties to be performed. The degree of attainment differs in individuals, and it would be wrong to expect as many useful qualifications in a librarian receiving £100 per annum, as in one, with twenty times the responsibility, receiving £500 per annum, but there are certain broad principles which apply in varying proportions to every case, and these should be seriously considered by committees while appointments are being made. With due allowance for the size and wealth of the library, and the salary to be offered to the librarian, the following practical qualifications should be looked for and expected in every candidate :—

57. LIBRARIAN'S QUALIFICATIONS.

1. Previous training for at least three years in a library which is classified according to some scientific and exact system ;[1] and which publishes catalogues which can be produced as evidence of the quality of work performed.
2. A wide knowledge of English and foreign bibliography and literature, and an intimate and exact knowledge of the contents of modern books, especially those which are technical, scientific and historical.
3. Sufficient acquaintance with foreign languages to enable title-pages to be translated and understood with the aid of dictionaries.
4. A knowledge of elementary book-keeping and accounts, together with some experience in ordinary business routine.
5. Practical acquaintance with the leading systems of exact classification, and the power to describe how they differ in notation.
6. Full knowledge of various methods of cataloguing, with a thorough grasp of the modern literature of the subject.
7. Experience in the management of assistants.
8. Practical knowledge of all modern systems of library working, including bookbinding, book purchasing, charging and maintenance.
9. Knowledge of modern periodical literature, and the management of newsrooms.
10. General culture, tact and courtesy.

[1] "Adjustable," "Decimal," "Expansive," "Subject," or other scheme.

Every candidate for a librarianship in a public library should be able to produce satisfactory proof that his qualifications cover most of the above points. In all other respects committees must rely on their own sagacity. Before leaving the subject of qualifications, there are a few important matters which require notice.

58. *The appointment of a librarian should be the first step taken by a committee.* Numberless blunders have been committed in the past, through the mistaken policy of proceeding with buildings, methods and book selection before a chief officer was appointed. Any little amount which may be saved from the salary of the librarian is always lost by the adoption of faulty apparatus or plans, and in the end, committees who work without the aid of a trained adviser are certain to spend many times more than the salary in all kinds of futile and expensive experiments. It is not only a great mistake to proceed without expert advice, but an utterly false economy in every respect. If library authorities are unable to pay for the full time of a fully qualified librarian, they should apply to the Library Association for the nomination of a skilled adviser who, for a small fee, would give the committee invaluable assistance in the work of organization.

59. *Only trained librarians should ever be appointed to chief posts.* Sometimes, for sentimental or local reasons, committees have committed the blunder of appointing chief librarians from the ranks of stickit ministers, unlucky schoolmasters, retired soldiers, minor journalists, unsuccessful booksellers, dilettante town councillors, or such-like remnants of the failures or superannuated in other walks of life, and the result has been in every case unfortunate. No untrained librarian is likely to attain more than the poorest or most commonplace results. There is just as much need for carefully trained and expert officers in modern library work, as there is in any other trade or profession which depends for its excellence on special knowledge. No committee of business men would ever dream of appointing a chemist, architect, medical officer, engineer, solicitor, or even

a factory manager, from the ranks of the untrained and inexpert, as has been so often done in public libraries. It is a good rule to insist that every candidate must have been trained for at least three years in a systematically classified public library, that is to say a library arranged according to the Adjustable, Decimal, Expansive, Subject, or any other recognized scientific scheme. This is the only possible way of making sure that the candidate is acquainted with modern library methods.

60. Advertisements and Application Forms for Appointments.—Advertisements for librarians are usually inserted in the *Athenæum* (11 Bream's Buildings, Chancery Lane, London, E.C.), a weekly literary journal which is scanned by every librarian in the country. An advertisement appearing in it is, therefore, almost certain to come under the notice of every trained man in the profession. A useful form of announcement may be worded as follows :—

> LIBERTON PUBLIC LIBRARY: CHIEF LIBRARIAN wanted. Age not to exceed 50. At least three years' training and experience in a public library employing systematic classification essential. Must be thoroughly versed in modern library methods. The certificates of the Library Association will be accepted as proof of this qualification. Salary to commence at £——. Application, accompanied by three recent testimonials, to be made on a special form, which may be obtained from the undersigned. All applications to be lodged with the undersigned not later than [allow three weeks]——. Second-class railway fares of selected candidates will be allowed. Canvassing will disqualify.
>
> A. B. C., Town Clerk, or Clerk to the Committee.

An advertisement in these or similar terms, if inserted twice, will produce all the applications worth considering.

61. The practice of requiring all candidates to apply on a special form is a good one, and should be more generally adopted. It has the great advantage of securing uniformity in the information supplied, and it also enables a committee to ascertain the particulars considered most important. The following draft of a form may be suggestive to committees about to make an appointment :—

LIBERTON PUBLIC LIBRARY COMMITTEE.

[Address.]

APPLICATION FOR LIBRARIANSHIP.

The candidate is particularly requested to answer every question in full, and return to A. B. C. [address], by 12 o'clock on [date to be named], marked on outside of envelope, "Librarianship".

1. Full name.
2. Address.
3. Age next birthday.
4. Married or single.
5. No. of family if married.
6. Is your health good?
7. Have you any physical defect (deafness, lameness, etc.)?
8. Present occupation.
9. Length of service in present occupation.
10. Former occupations, if any.
11. Do you possess any of the following qualifications?—
    - Practical knowledge of modern literature.
    - Practical knowledge of scientific classification.
    - Practical knowledge of library planning.
    - Knowledge of accounts and book-keeping.
    - Experience in management of staff.
    - Practical knowledge of modern library management.
12. State system used in your library for the following departments, and which you would adopt if appointed here:—
    - Classification.
    - Printed catalogue.
    - Manuscript catalogue.
    - Book issue method.
    - Reference library method.
13. Have you originated any library device, or published articles on practical phases of library work?
14. Do you possess any degrees or certificates of an educational kind?
15. Have you made a special study of any particular subject?
16. When could you enter upon duty if appointed?

Selected candidates, when interviewed, should be examined on the questions scheduled above and on the qualifications specified in Section 57. A few questions by the chairman, based upon these, in addition to the independent suggestions of members of committee, will generally result in obtaining a very fair estimate of the qualifications of each candidate.

62. Salaries.—Owing to the limitation of the library rate and a general underestimate of the librarian's utility, salaries in

municipal libraries are not very liberal. Excluding London and the largest provincial cities, the scale of remuneration may even be described as inadequate. In the State, university and some of the endowed and proprietary libraries the salaries range much higher, taken all round. These appointments, however, especially such as the British Museum, India Office, House of Commons, the universities and similar institutions, are seldom offered for competition, and may be dismissed at once from the question. In public municipal libraries the salaries of chief librarians range from £600 down to £2 or £3 per annum, with all kinds of intermediate rates. Some of the large London proprietary libraries, and many of the provincial libraries of a similar kind, also give salaries to about the same maximum.

A careful analysis of the income, population, work and salaries of the principal English and American libraries has enabled the following table to be produced, showing clearly the amount which a library can afford to pay for a good officer. This scale is considerably below the American one, but slightly higher than the English one up to library incomes of £6,000. Above that sum the salaries suggested approach more to the American scale.

TABLE OF LIBRARIANS' SALARIES WHICH SHOULD BE PAID BY LIBRARIES POSSESSING THE INCOMES UNDERNOTED.

Library Annual Income from Rate.	Librarian's Salary.	Library Annual Income from Rate.	Librarian's Salary.
£	£	£	£
20,000	800	1,600	260
15,000	700	1,500	250
10,000	600	1,400	240
8,000	550	1,300	230
6,000	500	1,200	220
5,500	475	1,100	210
5,000	450	1,000	200
4,500	425	900	190
4,000	400	800	180
3,500	375	700	170
3,000	350	600	160
2,500	325	500	150
2,000	300	400	120
1,900	290	300	90
1,800	280	200	60 } For part of
1,700	270	100	30 } time only.

By offering salaries according to the above scale library committees will be able to attract the best officers obtainable for the grade of library represented. They will also be freed from the *maximum* bogey, which is usually a very debatable policy wherever introduced. Very few officers who have once reached a maximum salary, especially when not very liberal, are likely to distinguish themselves by extra activity. An increase which proceeds with the growth of the library resources seems to be a very sensible policy.

63. The only other point of importance arising out of the question of librarians' salaries is that of providing a residence on the library premises. This policy has been adopted in London more than anywhere else. It affects the question of salary to some extent, though not quite so much as has been claimed. A committee of a £4,000 library might argue that, by providing a good house in a valuable position, they are only entitled to give a salary of £300; the balance of £100 being represented by the house. The practical reply to this is that, a house under these conditions, although it could rent at £100 or even more, is just worth to the librarian exactly what he would be prepared to pay for house rent if he lived away from the library. Any allowance or deduction should accordingly be based upon this consideration. In small libraries it is not advisable to incur additional cost in the erection of buildings by providing a residence for the librarian in order to save on his salary. This has not proved to be the case in most instances, and beyond the advantage of having a librarian living on the premises as a kind of superior perpetual caretaker, there is little to be gained by complicating a library building with such an excrescence as a residence. If houses are provided at all, they should be mainly used by caretakers who have to get up early, and there is a decided convenience in having an officer of this description on the spot and always at hand. If possible, residences of this sort should be erected as far away from public reading-rooms as they can be; the occupation of rooms over newsrooms, etc., having been proved to be very unhealthy in many cases. The accom-

modation provided for a caretaker usually consists of a sitting-room or large kitchen, parlour, two bedrooms, and the usual offices. In some London libraries very liberal provision has been made for librarians living on the premises, the accommodation consisting of three large living rooms, four or five bedrooms, kitchen, scullery, bathroom and other offices. The whole question of residence or non-residence is one for library authorities to decide for themselves, but the matter is another proof of the necessity which exists for appointing librarians before buildings are erected.

64. Superannuation.—There is no general law at present under which public librarians can retire on a pension after a certain age has been reached. Some towns have made separate arrangements for the superannuation of all their officers, but even this is far from common. A Bill has been before Parliament for some years whose object is to procure for municipal officers the same regulations as to superannuation which are in force for poor-law officers, but this has not yet passed into law.

65. Conditions of Librarian's Appointment.—There are several points requiring notice in connexion with the conditions upon which librarians are appointed. It is not always usual to draw up a formal agreement, but if this is done it should be executed by a solicitor, and specify the principal obligations, terms and duration of the appointment.

1. In large libraries it is usual to stipulate that the librarian must devote the whole of his or her TIME to the duties of the office. This simply means that no other office can be held concurrently, but particularly a paid office. A librarian's private time can be devoted to any hobby he chooses, be it gardening, cycling, photography, literature, music or sport. Provided, always, such recreations do not render a librarian less fit for his public duty. Official time occupied in any work which has for its object improvement in professional knowledge should be allowed within reasonable limits. Attendances at meetings called for professional purposes, or visits to other places for the purpose of acquiring professional knowledge, would, we take it, be considered quite legitimate. Where a certain number of hours daily or weekly has been fixed the question of the disposal of a librarian's leisure time will not arise.
2. Notice of intention TO DETERMINE AN APPOINTMENT might be stipulated for in an agreement. The usual practice is one month's notice on either side.

3. A public librarian who handles public money should be required to obtain security from a recognized guarantee office. The amount insured against will generally be fully covered by a sum equal to 10 per cent. of the annual income of the library. Thus, a library with an income of £2,000 should make £200 the insurable sum, as this will cover any possible defalcations of the librarian, who, under any circumstances, in such a library, can never handle more than about £60 or £70 in the course of one month. The premium for municipal officers averages about 5s. per cent., and, of course, the library authority should make the annual payments to keep the policy alive.
4. The VACATION allowed to librarians varies with the conditions of each place. In some cases five weeks are allowed, irrespective of the time occupied by conferences or other annual meetings. Usually three or four weeks are given, and this will be found generally as long as the average librarian can afford! As a rule, committees will not be found niggardly in this matter when they have an officer whom they can respect and trust. In American libraries a month is often allowed, and in some cases much longer periods.
5. The only ANNUAL CONFERENCES of any importance in connexion with public library work are those of the Library Association and the Museums Association. Practice differs as regards libraries sending delegates to the annual conferences of the Library Association. In some cases where a library is a subscribing member, and, in addition, the librarian is also a member in his own name, it sends a member of the committee and the librarian, and pays their expenses. In other cases the librarian alone is sent, and his expenses paid. In still other cases the librarian is allowed the time to attend, but has to pay his own expenses; while, sometimes, the chairman of committee attends, and either pays his own expenses or has them paid by the committee.

Every library which desires to keep abreast with modern ideas in library work should send its librarian to the annual conferences of the Library Association, and pay his expenses. All public libraries should join this association as institution members, and see that the librarian becomes a member, either at his own expense or at that of the committee. There is more knowledge and good obtained by a librarian coming into personal touch with other librarians during a conference week than can ever be achieved in a state of hermit-like seclusion. The sum spent on a library conference to insure a librarian's attendance is by far the most profitable investment a library committee can make in a single year.

Some doubt exists as to whether members of committee can be sent at the expense of the library rate, and, so far as parishes are concerned, it has been decided by the district auditors that they can not be sent unless at their own personal expense. Municipal boroughs have power to send committee delegates if so disposed, but the matter remains doubtful as regards Urban District Councils.

66. Duties of the Librarian.—The duties of a librarian practically cover every section of this *Manual*, and it is, therefore, needless to go over the same ground here. It may be assumed, however, that the librarian also acts as clerk to his committee, and a few of the more personal duties of a librarian may be specified. It has been recommended that a librarian should act as clerk, and some reasons may be given why this course should always be taken. The librarian is the only official who holds all the threads of work and routine in his hands or who thoroughly understands the practical working of the institution. By combining the functions he remains in touch with his committee, and can much better understand their views than if a second person acts as intermediary or interpreter. The plan is also more economical, as town clerks either take a salary for acting as clerk to the library committee, or else charge a proportion of office expenses to the library. Both courses are quite unnecessary. It is not desirable, when a library committee has obtained a complete or partial delegation of powers, to have its work controlled or interfered with by another municipal department. Even when a library committee remains but an ordinary committee of a local authority, it is not desirable for the town clerk to do more than depute a junior clerk to attend meetings for the sole purpose of recording minutes. The chairman and librarian should call all meetings and arrange all necessary business. It is too often overlooked that library committees are appointed to carry out special work under a special Act of Parliament, and that, in consequence, they are performing duties outside the ordinary routine of municipal work.

67. The following summary of the more important duties which come immediately within the province of the librarian comprises everything with which he has a direct personal concern :—

1. He must superintend and prepare all the business for the library committee, including summoning meetings, preparing agendas, checking accounts, compiling lists of books, preparing reports and taking minutes of proceedings.

2. He must attend all committee meetings, and such of the local authority meetings as may be fixed.
3. He must prepare all specifications for contracts, and bring forward in plenty of time all business which arises regularly, either monthly, quarterly or annually.
4. He should sign all orders and be responsible for all correspondence connected with the library. He should keep copies of all orders and important letters, as well as copies of any specifications or other documents.
5. He must fix the time, duties and daily work of the staff, and superintend and check their attendance and work in every department.
6. He must see that order is maintained among readers throughout the main building and branches, and that the rules are enforced within reason, and that the opening and closing of the library are done punctually.
7. He must carefully supervise the selection of books and periodicals for addition to the library, and examine all necessary lists, catalogues and reviews for that purpose.
8. He should personally check all cataloguing and classification work.
9. He should be prepared when called upon to aid readers, as far as possible, in any line of research, and should be easily accessible at all times when on duty.

68. The Librarian's Library.

The following is a brief classified list of the principal books which a librarian will require as the chief tools of his profession :—

General.

Brown (James D.) Annotated syllabus for the systematic study of librarianship. 1904.

Burgoyne (F. J.) Library construction, architecture, fittings and furniture. London. 1897.

Champneys (A. L.) Public libraries, a treatise on their design, etc. 1907.

Cousin (Jules) De l'organisation et de l'administration des bibliothèques. 1882.

Dana (John Cotton) A Library primer. Chicago. 1899.

Graesel (Arnim) Handbuch der bibliothekslehre: zweite, voellig umgearbeitete auflage der "Grundzüge der bibliothekslehre". Leipzig. 1902.

Greenwood (Thomas) Sunday school and village libraries. London. 1892.

Macfarlane (John) Library administration. London. 1898.

Maire (Albert) Manuel pratique du bibliothécaire : bibliothèques publiques, bibliothèques universitaires, bibliothèques privées . . . Paris. 1896.

Reyer (Ed.) Entwicklung und organisation der volksbibliotheken. Leipzig. 1893.

Roebuck (George E.) and William B. Thorne. A Primer of library practice for junior assistants. 1904.
Stearns (L. E.) *ed.* Essentials in library administration. 1905. *A. L. A. Tracts*, No. 6.
Wheatley (Henry B.) How to form a library. London. 1886.
—— New edition. 1902.

69. Societies and Periodicals—

Greenwood (Thomas) *ed.* Greenwood's Library year book. 1897. British library year book. 1900-1901. London.
International Conference of Librarians' Transactions, London. 1877. London.
—— Chicago. 1893. Bureau of Education, U. S. Report 1892-1893. Vol. 1.
—— London. 1897. London. 1898.
Library: a magazine of bibliography and library literature. Edited by J. Y. W. MacAlister. 1889-1898. 10 vols.
—— New series. 1899. *In progress.*
Library Assistant. London. 1898. Vol. 1. *In progress.*
Library Association. Monthly notes. 1880-1883. 4 vols.
Library Association Record. London. 1899. *In progress.*
Library Association Transactions and proceedings of annual meetings. 1878-1894.
Library Association Year books. 1893-1905. *In progress.*
Library Chronicle. London. 1884-1888. 5 vols.
Library Journal. New York. 1876. *In progress*
Library World. London. 1898. *In progress.*
Museums Journal. London. *In progress.*
Public Libraries. Chicago. 1896. *In progress.*
Zentralblatt fur bibliothekswesen. Leipzig. 1884. *In progress.*

70. History—

Clark (J. W.) The Care of books: the development of libraries and their fittings, to the end of the eighteenth century. 1901.
Edwards (Edward) Free town libraries: their formation, management and history. London. 1869.
—— Memoirs of libraries. London. 1859. 2 vols.
Fletcher (W. I.) Public libraries in America. Boston or London. 1894.
Greenwood (Thomas) Edward Edwards. London. 1902.
—— Public libraries: a history of the movement, and a manual for the organisation and management of rate-supported libraries. Fourth edition (revised). London. 1891.
Ogle (John J.) The Free library: its history and present condition. London. 1897.
Pellisson (Maurice) Les Bibliothèques populaires à l'étranger et en France. Paris. 1906.

71. Legislation—

Chambers (George F.) and H. W. Fovargue. The Law relating to public libraries and museums and literary and scientific institutions. Fourth edition. 1899.

Fovargue (H. W.) Adoption of the Public Libraries Acts in England and Wales. (L. A. Series, No. 7.) London. 1896.

Fovargue (H. W.) and J. J. Ogle. Public library legislation. . . . (L. A. Series, No. 2.) London. 1893.

Wire (G. E.) How to start a public library. 1902. *A. L. A. Tracts*, No. 2.

72. Classification—

Brown (James D.) Adjustable classification for libraries, with index. Abstracted from "Manual of library classification". London. 1898.

—— Manual of library classification and shelf arrangement. London. 1898.

—— Subject classification. 1906.

Cutter (C. A.) Expansive classification. Boston. 1891. *In progress.*

Dewey (Melvil) A Classification and subject index for cataloguing and arranging the books and pamphlets of a library. Amherst, Mass. 1876. *Anon.*

—— Tables and index of the Decimal classification. *Latest edition.*

—— Abridged edition.

Fletcher (W. I.) Library classification. Reprinted . . . from his "Public libraries in America". Boston. 1894.

Perkins (Frederick B.) A Rational classification of literature for shelving and cataloguing books in a library, with alphabetical index. San Francisco. 1882.

Richardson (Ernest C.) Classification, theoretical and practical. I. The order of the sciences. II. The classification of books. Together with an appendix containing an essay towards a bibliographical history of systems of classification. New York. 1901.

73. Cataloguing—

Crawford (Esther) Cataloging: suggestions for the small public library. 1906.

Cutter (Charles A.) Rules for a dictionary catalogue. Washington. 1876.

—— Second edition. 1889.

—— Third edition. 1891.

—— Fourth edition; rewritten. 1904.

Dewey (Melvil) *ed.* Library School card catalog rules, with fifty-two *facsimiles* of sample cards . . . with bibliography of catalog rules by Mary S. Cutler. Fourth edition. Boston. 1892.

Dziatzko (C.) Instruction für die ordnung der titel im alphabetischen zettelkatalog der Königl. and Universitäts-bibliothek zu Breslau. 1886.

Hitchler (Theresa) Cataloging for small libraries. 1905. *A. L. A. Handbooks*, No. 2.

Linderfelt (Klas A.) Eclectic card catalog rules. Author and title entries: based on Dziatzko's "Instruction" compared with the rules of the British Museum, Cutter, Dewey, Perkins and other authorities. Boston. 1890.

Perkins (Frederick B.) San Francisco cataloguing for public libraries: a manual of the system used in the San Francisco Free Public Library. San Francisco. 1884.

Quinn (J. Henry). Manual of library cataloguing. London. 1899.

Savage (Ernest A.) Manual of descriptive annotation for library catalogues. 1906.

Wheatley (Henry B.) How to catalogue a library. 1889.

Clarke (A. L.) Manual of practical indexing. 1905.

Collins (F. H.) Author and printer. 1905.

74. Anonyms and Pseudonyms—

Barbier (A. A.) Dictionnaire des ouvrages anonymes. Third edition. Paris. 1872-1878. 4 vols.

Cushing (Wm.) Initials and pseudonyms. New York. 1885.

—— Anonyms. Cambridge, Mass. London. 1890. 2 vols.

Halkett (Samuel) and John Laing. Dictionary of the anonymous and pseudonymous literature of Great Britain. Edinburgh. 1882-1888. 4 vols.

uérard (J. M.) Dictionnaire des ouvrages pseudonymes et anonymes de la littérature Française; 1700 to 1845. Paris. 1846. 3 vols.

Weller (E.) Lexicon pseudonymorum. Regensburg. 1886. 2 vols.

75. Bookbinding—

Brassington (W. S.) History of the art of bookbinding. 1894.

Cockerell (Douglas) Bookbinding and the care of books. 1906.

Horne (H. P.) The Binding of books. 1894. *Books about books.*

Library Association. Sound Leather Committee. Leather for libraries. 1905.

Prideaux (S. T.) Historical sketch of bookbinding. London. 1893.

Society of Arts. Report of the committee on leather for bookbinding. 1905.

Zaehnsdorf (J. H.) Bookbinding. 1900.

76. Bibliography: General—

Brown (James D.) A Manual of practical bibliography. 1906.

Burton (J. H.) The Bookhunter. Edinburgh. Late edition.

Campbell (F.) Theory of national and international bibliography. 1896.

Elton (Charles and Mary) Great book collectors. 1893. *Books about books.*

Horne (Thomas H.) Introduction to the study of bibliography. London. 1814. 2 vols.

Kleemeier (F. J.) Handbuch der bibliographie. 1903.

Power (John) Handy book about books. London. 1870.
Rawlings (G. B.) The Story of books. 1901.
Rouveyre (E.) Connaissances nécessaires à un bibliophile. Fifth edition. Paris. 1899. 10 vols.

77. Historical Typography—

Ames (J.) Typographical antiquities. London. 1785-1790. 3 vols. (ed. by Herbert); or 1810-1819, 4 vols. (ed. by Dibdin).
Blades (Wm.) The Pentateuch of printing. London. 1891.
Bullen (G.) *ed.* Catalogue of Caxton Celebration. 1877.
Cotton (Henry) Typographical gazetteer. Oxford. 1831-1866. 2 vols.
De Vinne (T.) The Invention of printing. New York. 1877.
Duff (E. Gordon) Early printed books. 1893. *Books about books.*
Faulmann (K.) Geschichte der buchdruckerkunst. Vienna. 1882.
Humphreys (H. N.) History of the art of printing. 1868.
Jacobi (Chas. T.) Some notes on books and printing. 1904.
Madan (Falconer) Books in manuscript. 1893. *Books about books.*
Plomer (H. R.) Short history of English printing. London. 1900.
Pollard (Alfred W.) Early illustrated books. 1893. *Books about books.*
Proctor (R.) Index to the early printed books in the British Museum . . . to 1500. London. 1898-1899. 4 vols.

78. Bookselling—

Book-prices current . . . edited by J. H. Slater. 1887-1898. London. *In progress.*
Clegg (James) International directory of booksellers and bibliophiles' manual: including lists of the public libraries of the world, etc. Rochdale. 1899. *Also other and later editions.*
Wheatley (Henry B.) Prices of books, an inquiry into the changes in the price of books which have occurred in England at different periods. London. 1898.

79. General Bibliographies—

Acland (A. H. D.) Guide to the choice of books for students and general readers. London. 1891.
Allibone (S. A.) Critical dictionary of English literature and British and American authors. Philadelphia. 1859-1871. 3 vols.
—— Supplement, edited by J. F. Kirk. 1891. 2 vols.
American Library Association. A. L. A. Catalog: eight thousand volumes for a popular library, with notes. New edition. 1904.
British Museum. List of books of reference in the Reading Room. *Latest edition.*
—— Catalogue of Books . . . printed in England, Scotland and Ireland . . . to the year 1640. 1884. 3 vols.
Brunet (J. C.) Manuel du libraire. Paris. 1860-1865. 6 vols.

Brunet. Supplement. Paris. 1878-1880. 2 vols.
—— Dictionnaire de géographie, par Deschamps. Paris. 1870.
Burgoyne (F. J.) and J. Ballinger and J. D. Brown. Books for village libraries. (L. A. Series, No. 6.) London. 1895.
English catalogue of books. 1835-1899. Issued in vols. and annual parts. *In progress.*
Fortescue (G. K.) Subject index of the modern works, British Museum. 1880-1895, 1902. *In progress.*
Graesse (J. G. T.) Trésor de livres rares et précieux . . . Dresden. 1859-1869. 7 vols.
Hain (L.) Repertorium bibliographicum . . . Stuttgart. 1826-1838. 4 vols. Indices by Burger, 1891. Supplement by W. A. Copinger. London. 1895-1898. 2 vols.
Leypoldt (A. H.) and G. Iles. List of books for girls and women. Boston. 1895.
Lowndes (Wm. T.) Bibliographer's manual of English literature. London. 1857-1864. 6 vols.
Mayor (J. B.) Guide to the choice of classical books. London. 1885-1896. 2 vols.
Panzer (G. W.) Annales typographici. Nurnberg. 1793-1803. 11 vols.
Perkins (F. B.) and L. E. Jones. The Best reading; hints on the selection of books. New York. 1872-1895. 4 vols.
Reference catalogue of current literature. 1874. *Issued irregularly every few years. In progress.*
Sargant (E. B.) and B. Whishaw. Guide book to books. London. 1891.
Sonnenschein (W. S.) The Best books: a reader's guide to the choice of the best available books. London. 1887-1894. 2 vols.
—— Reader's guide to contemporary literature. London. 1895. (*Supplement to above.*)
Watt (Robert) Bibliotheca Britannica: a general index of British and foreign literature. Edinburgh. 1824. 4 vols.

See also Sec. 77, Historical Typography.

80. Bibliographies of Bibliography—

British Museum. List of bibliographical works in the Reading Room. *Latest edition.*
Chicago. John Crerar Library. A List of bibliographies of special subjects. 1902.
Courtney (W. P.) A Register of national bibliography: with a selection of the chief bibliographical books and articles printed in other countries. 1905. 2 vols.
Langlois (C. V.) Manuel de bibliographie historique. 1904.
Petzholdt (Julius) Bibliotheca bibliographica. Leipzig. 1866.
Stein (Henri) Manuel de bibliographie générale. Paris. 1897.
Vallée (L.) Bibliographie des bibliographies. Paris. 1883-1887. 2 vols.

81. Special Bibliographies and Guides—

Adams (C. K.) Manual of historical literature. Third edition. New York. 1888.

A.L.A. Portrait index. Index to portraits contained in printed books and periodicals. Washington. 1906.

Baker (Ernest A.) Guide to the best fiction. 1903.

Bolton (H. C.) Catalogue of technical periodicals. 1665-1882. Washington. 1887.

Bowen (H. C.) Descriptive catalogue of historical novels and tales. London. 1905.

Bowker (R. R.) and G. Iles. Readers' guide in economic and political science. New York. 1891.

Brewer (E. C.) Readers' handbook of famous names in fiction, allusions, references, etc. London. 1898. *Last edition.*

Brown (James D.) Classified list of current periodicals: a guide to the selection of magazine literature. 1904.

—— Guide to the formation of a music library. (L. A. Series, No. 4.) London. 1899.

With Supplement in *Library World*, May-June, 1899.

Fletcher (W. I.) Co-operative index to periodicals. New York. 1886.

—— The Annual Literary Index. New York. 1898. *Now* The Annual Library Index. *In progress.*

Greenwood (Edgar) Classified guide to technical and commercial books: principal British and American works in print. 1904.

Gross (C.) Sources and literature of English history . . . to 1485. London. 1900.

Haferkorn (H. E.) and P. Heise. Handy lists of technical literature. Milwaukee. 1889.

Iles (George) Annotated bibliography of fine art. By R. Sturgis and H. E. Krehbiel. Boston. 1897.

Kroeger (A. B.) Guide to . . . reference books. Boston. 1902.

Library Association. Class list of best books, 1905-1906. *In progress.*

Nield (Jonathan) Guide to the best historical novels and tales. Third edition. 1904.

Poole (W. F.) and W. I. Fletcher. Index to periodical literature (to 1881). Third edition. Boston. 1882.

—— Supplements. 1882-1896, 1901. Boston. 3 vols. *In progress.*

Robertson (John M.) Courses of study. 1904.

Sargant (John F.) Reading for the young: a classified and annotated catalogue. Boston. 1890.

82. Reference List of Authorities:—

Being a librarian. Symposium on difficulties, qualifications, etc., of librarianship, by American librarians. Lib. J., 1890, pp. 202, 231, 264, 294, 330.

Fletcher (W. I.) The Librarian: his work and his training for it. *See his* "Public Libraries in America," p. 80.
Graesel (A.) Handbuch der bibliothekslehre, p. 457.
Hayward (A. L.) Training of a libratian. Lib. J., 1892, p. 478.
Plummer (Mary W.) Training for librarianship. Lib. J., 1901, p. 317. (Chiefly on American library schools.)
Sharp (K. L.) Librarianship as a profession. P. L., 1898, p. 5.
Thompson (W. O.) Librarianship as a profession. P. L., 1900, p. 415.

CHAPTER V.

ASSISTANTS.

83. Applications.—The same principles which guide in the selection of a chief librarian should govern the choice of public library assistants. All vacancies should be publicly advertised either in the *Athenæum* as before, or in the local newspapers, or both, stating requirements as regards age, salary, etc., and in the case of junior assistants, stating that an examination in certain elementary subjects of knowledge would be held, at which candidates must sit. An application form is not necessary for minor appointments, but library committees should insist upon a fair standard of education as a vital condition of any appointment. Librarians and sub-librarians are very frequently promoted from the junior staff, and, unless general knowledge and intelligence are regarded as essential conditions, such appointments are certain to disappoint both committees and public if the raw material is not selected carefully to begin with.

84. Examinations.—It is a matter of great importance for a library committee to appoint only well-educated and intelligent assistants. Unless this is done always, both the library and the public will suffer. Nothing is more exasperating to intending readers than to be served by some youth who is ignorant of the most elementary subjects in general knowledge. For these reasons a preliminary examination which shall weed out the most illiterate of the candidates is highly desirable. The examination need not be very elaborate, but it should be thorough. The papers should be drawn in such a way as to

form a test of each candidate's handwriting, spelling and composition. The History paper should include at least four questions which deal with English literature, and the Geography one should not be confined to the United Kingdom. Arithmetic need not go beyond the calculation of averages, percentages, etc., and bills of parcels. Four or six questions should be put in every subject, according to the time allowed, and a maximum of four marks should be given for each correct answer. The three candidates who gain the most marks after any deductions are made should be summoned to meet the committee. The examination should be conducted by the librarian, with any member or members of the committee appointed to assist him. The certificates of any recognized examining body, such as the Oxford and Cambridge Local Examinations, the College of Preceptors, Civil Service, etc., should be accepted in lieu of a private examination.

85. Examinations are held every year in May by the Library Association, in London and other centres, in Literature; Bibliography; Classification; Cataloguing; Library History, Foundation and Equipment; and Library Routine, which are of the utmost importance in aiding library authorities to choose fully qualified assistants. Candidates possessing one or more of the Library Association's certificates should be selected for interview as a matter of course. Assistants who are already appointed to positions in libraries should be encouraged to study for the Library Association examinations, either at the classes held at the London School of Economics, under the auspices of the University of London, at local training schools, as in Manchester, or in connexion with the Correspondence classes conducted by the Library Association. Some library authorities pay the fees of their assistants to enable them to attend such educational classes, and, in addition, grant them the necessary time. This action is worthy of imitation. Full particulars of these educational courses can be obtained from the Hon. Secretary of the Library Association.

86. **Duties and Training.**—Assistants should have their

duties so arranged as to give ample opportunity for learning every branch of library work. Unfortunately this is not a recognized principle either in the United Kingdom or the United States. In many of the larger libraries the work is arranged in departments, Reference, Lending, Juvenile, Branch, Accession, Cataloguing, Registration, etc., and assistants who get fixed in one or other of these departments are likely to remain for a long time, to the great prejudice of their general education in library work. In common fairness to the assistants who give up their chance of more lucrative work to devote themselves to librarianship, full opportunity should be afforded them of gradually learning every department of the work, not in a period of five to ten years, but within a much shorter time. The assistant who is kept at accession or registration work for several years misses his or her chance of becoming acquainted with other important departments; while those who are continually doomed to branch library service not only lose all chance of learning, but all hope of promotion. The work of a large library staff should be so arranged as to give each assistant an opportunity of taking part in every branch of work in rotation. It may be more difficult to arrange in some libraries than in others, but whatever the difficulties they should be faced, because it is the first duty of a librarian to make his staff efficient and carefully train them in the details of their work, just as if they were premiated apprentices, in order to fit them for the position of chief librarian which they aspire to occupy in their turn. The arguments in favour of fixed duties for members of a staff should not be allowed to weigh against the claims of assistants to complete education in every department of work. As the duties of library assistants comprise practically every kind of work or process described in this book, save buidings, etc., it is not necessary to recapitulate them here. Naturally the duties must differ in libraries according to their size and circumstances, and no hard and fast rules can be laid down.

The staff, however, should not be considered as so many

central and so many branch assistants, but as a group of *library assistants*, all on an equality in their several grades, and the work of the whole organization should be arranged in such a way that the central and branch work can be equally divided all round. Changes of this kind are wholesome in every way, and enable a perfect check to be kept upon each branch and each assistant without special effort. Most of the classification, cataloguing and registration work should be done at the central library, but mere routine work like labelling, cutting-up, etc., can be done at the branches if necessary. The staff selected for doing special work like cataloguing can be occasionally relieved from the high pressure of their duties, and they can be sent now and again to take charge of a branch, where their knowledge will be warmly appreciated by dwellers in the outlying districts. Similarly, the men who have been "fielding" for so long can come in to the central and take a turn at the higher class work, and thus learn something of all sides of their adopted profession.

87. Work Book.—It is a good plan to use a work book or duty book, in which the daily duties of each assistant can be entered. By means of such a book it is easy to change the work about, in order to give every assistant an opportunity of doing everything in turn; and it is necessary because of the changes worked on the composition of the staff by the time-sheet. A good form of work book is shown in the ruling below. The names or numbers of the assistants are written or printed in the margin, and against these the particular duty, or set of duties, to be performed that day are written. This book is generally made up by the sub-librarian in large libraries, and checked by the librarian. In small libraries the librarian can write up this record daily. Apart from its value as a simple means of distributing and fixing duties, it makes a capital record of visitors or callers, errors, absences of staff, progress of certain pieces of work, checks of various kinds, and may even be used as a staff time-book. The following form is strongly recommended as a complete guide to the work of a library and

a check upon results, in a very handy form. For convenience' sake the assistants are numbered in order of seniority.

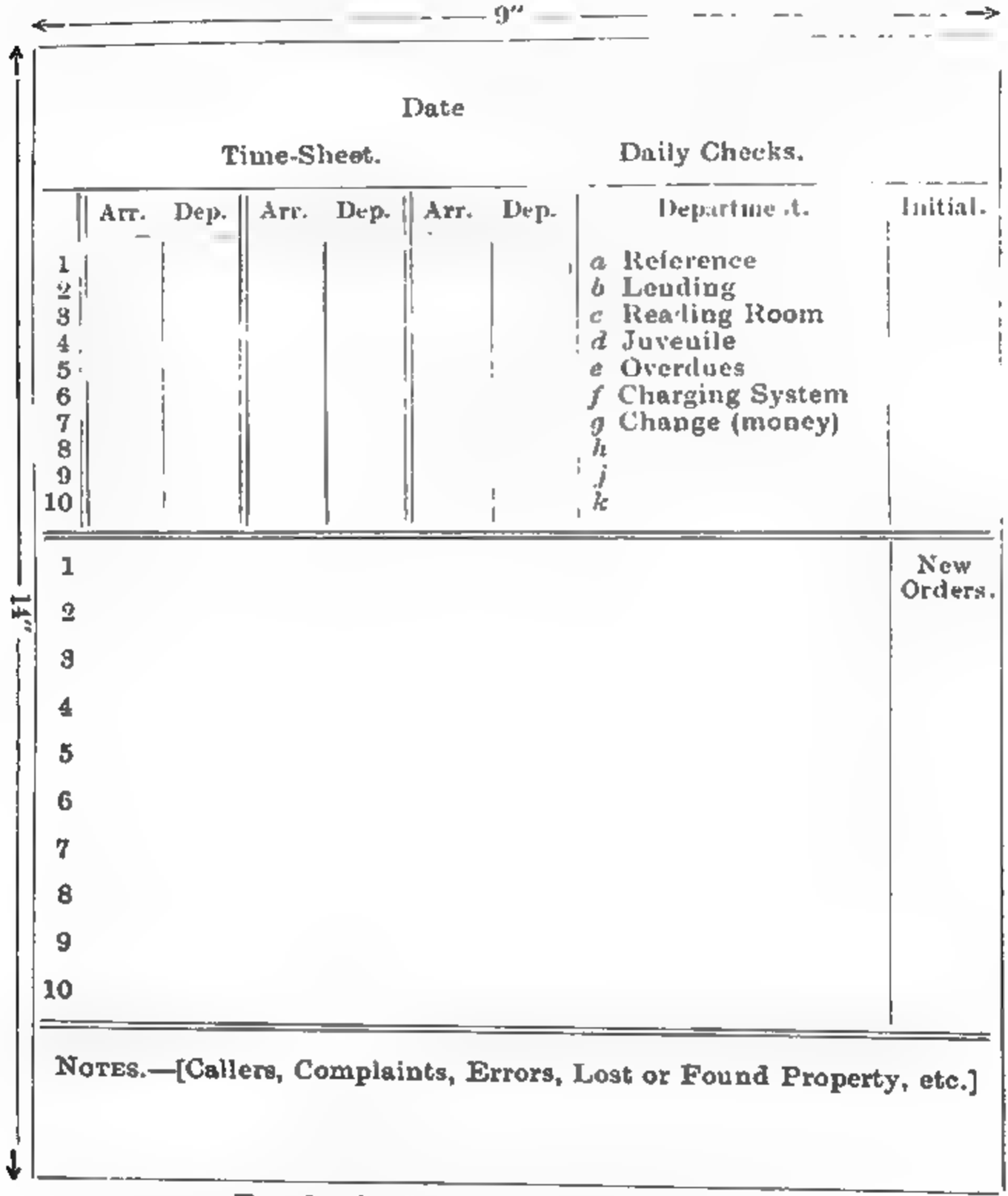

Fig. 2.—Staff Work Book (Section 87).

88. The method of using this book is very simple. If there are ten assistants or under, one page only is used, each member of the staff receiving an appropriate number. If there are more than ten assistants two pages must be used, the numbers on the second page having the figure 1 prefixed to them, and the 10

being altered to 20. Thus page 2 will appear as 11, 12, 13, 14, etc. If there are more than twenty assistants a third page can be used, the existing numbers having 2 prefixed as before.

Each assistant on arriving or departing enters on the "Time-Sheet" his or her exact time in the spaces reserved, beginning the day with the first column. The assistants who check and tidy *a* to *d* in the mornings write their initials opposite the particular duty, while those who attend to the charging system, date stamps, overdues and cash for change also initial the item, the amount of change being stated. Against each assistant's number is written his or her duties for the day. The first page or pages of the work book should be reserved as a key, and the names of the assistants should be written against the numbers which represent them. The column "New Orders" is for the librarian to enter any new instructions for all the staff. These should be entered briefly in red ink from the bottom towards the top of the page. The NOTES lines will receive all items specified and any other notable incidents occurring in the course of each day, such as "Break down of Electric Light," "Drunk man expelled," etc. The work book must be kept in *one* recognized place, and every assistant should be held responsible for entering up his own notes and time. Any note of a general kind must be entered by the senior officer present on duty. The work book should be submitted to the librarian every morning.

89. Checks on Work.—If the work book is kept properly and well looked after by the librarian, no other check is required. In some libraries the assistants have to pencil their numbers against every piece of work performed either in a special book or on a card, but this seems an irksome addition to duties already sufficiently heavy. Rubber stamps of a special kind, with the assistants' numbers or differently coloured inks, are also used for tracing errors at the issue desk in some libraries; but all these elaborate checks for fixing responsibility have little effect in inducing extra carefulness. If they were effective and worth the trouble of maintaining, they might be recommended,

but neither rubber stamps nor elaborate check-cards will eradicate the human tendency to err. There is little difficulty in detecting a habitually or wilfully careless assistant, and when this is done, a month's notice is a more effective remedy than a mere mechanical means of, perhaps, occasionally detecting a delinquent. There is one form of mechanical or physical check, however, which should have a place in every busy library. For want of a better name it may be called an "ORDERLY BOARD". Its purpose is to collect in one recognized place all the little odds and ends of matters which arise to cause inquiry. For example—Assistant No. 1, after a spirited encounter with a delinquent borrower, is promised payment, sometime, of the penny fine which was the cause of the dispute. No. 1 goes off duty, and while he is away the delinquent borrower returns, and is confronted by assistant No. 5, who is ignorant of the affray. The encounter either takes place all over again, or the borrower pays up, leaving No. 5 to find out as best he may how the matter stands. Now, if an orderly board is kept, No. 5 could refer to it and get to know immediately all about the affair. There are many little points of this sort which require classification and referring to one particular place, and the orderly board does something to accomplish all this. The diagram on p. 68 shows better than words the kind of appliance meant, and the various items of information which it gives. It consists, as will be seen, of a series of strong clips mounted on a board, as shown in Fig. 3, with all necessary lettering.

90. Hours.—According to the *British Library Year Book*, 1900-1901, the working hours of library assistants in British public libraries range from forty-two to sixty-six hours weekly. As all kinds and sizes of libraries are included in this comparison, and libraries of similar means and circumstances are to be found at both extremes, it is obvious that a more uniform method of fixing hours should be adopted. Why should a library which has practically the same income, hours of opening, staff and amount of issues, etc., as a similar library

elsewhere, find it necessary to work its assistants sixty-six hours a week, or eleven hours a day, when, at the other library, the same duties can be performed on forty-two hours a week, or seven hours a day? There seems no good reason why one library should not be able to treat its assistants the same as they are treated in other libraries of the same kind. The long and much-spread hours of public libraries, extending from early morning to late at night, require a sufficient staff to be in

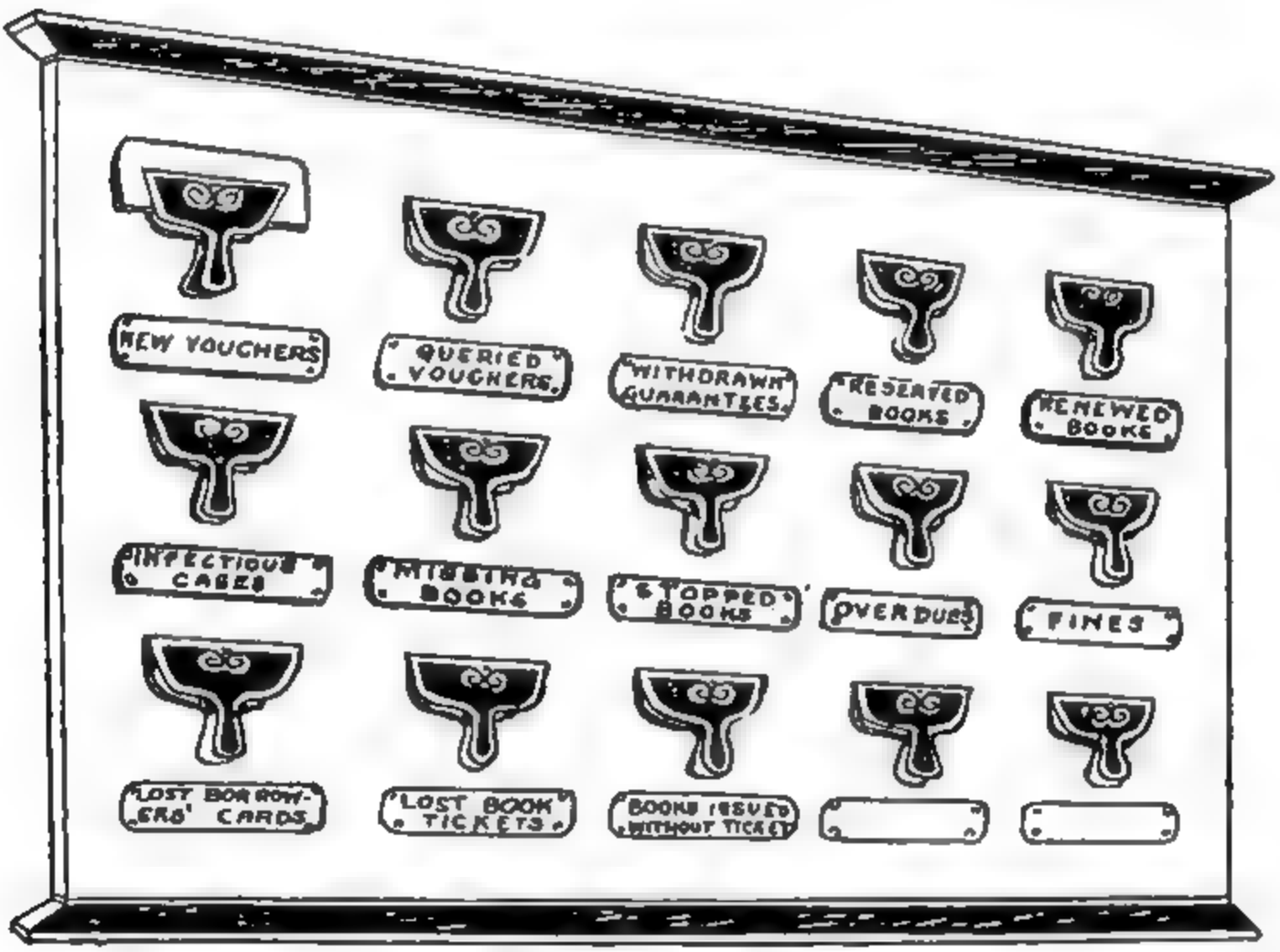

FIG. 3.—Staff Orderly Board (Section 89).

attendance throughout the whole period of twelve or fourteen hours, as the case may be. This leads to much broken time on the part of the staff, and to their duties being continued over the whole day. To keep assistants in condition and interested in their work, it is necessary that their hours should be short, as some compensation for many late nights and broken hours of duty. An average of eight hours a day, or forty-eight hours a week, should be regarded as a maximum, but forty-two hours a

week, or seven hours a day, is even a better average. Assistants should have time for reasonable recreation and for study, and their hours ought to be arranged as far as possible independently of the library hours of opening.

91. Time-sheet.—If a staff time-sheet is carefully constructed it will do away with a great deal of the difficulty of keeping a library open for a long series of hours daily with a small number of assistants. The worst feature of library service is the late nights, and very few places can arrange to give more than two early nights weekly. To give three or four early nights weekly would practically mean a duplicate staff, and this is not likely to be forthcoming with the present rate limitation, not to speak of the over-economical manner in which the average committee view questions of this kind. Some time ago the *Library World* (v. i., p. 233) published a description, with a ruled example, of a special card method of displaying an adjustable time-sheet in placard form. This is as practical and useful as any. The cards are ruled with vertical lines, representing hours and half-hours throughout the day. The assistant's numbers are printed down one margin, and their different times are represented by horizontal lines ruled across the hour lines by the librarian, or whoever draws up the sheet. An example of a card partly ruled to show a day's time for a staff of twelve assistants is given in Fig. 4. The advantages of this system are that a single day can be altered without affecting any of the others: the cards are cheap, and are prepared with most of the ruling done; they can be used for staffs of any size; when placed in a special wooden rack the whole of the staff time for a week can be shown at a glance, with full details regarding each assistant.

92. Vacation.—The time granted for the annual holidays of assistants is generally a fortnight, but it varies in different places according to circumstances. A week or ten days is not sufficient for the necessary rest and change, and a fortnight should be allowed in all cases, without deduction of time or wages. A sub-librarian should be allowed at least sixteen days

for annual vacation, or if the chief gets a month, he should have twenty-one days.

93. Salaries.—The library assistants of the United Kingdom are not paid on a scale commensurate with the value of their services. In some towns library assistants, performing duties requiring a considerable degree of intelligence and education, are paid less in name of wages than shopkeepers' errand-boys. Only in a very few places are anything like fair wages paid, and of

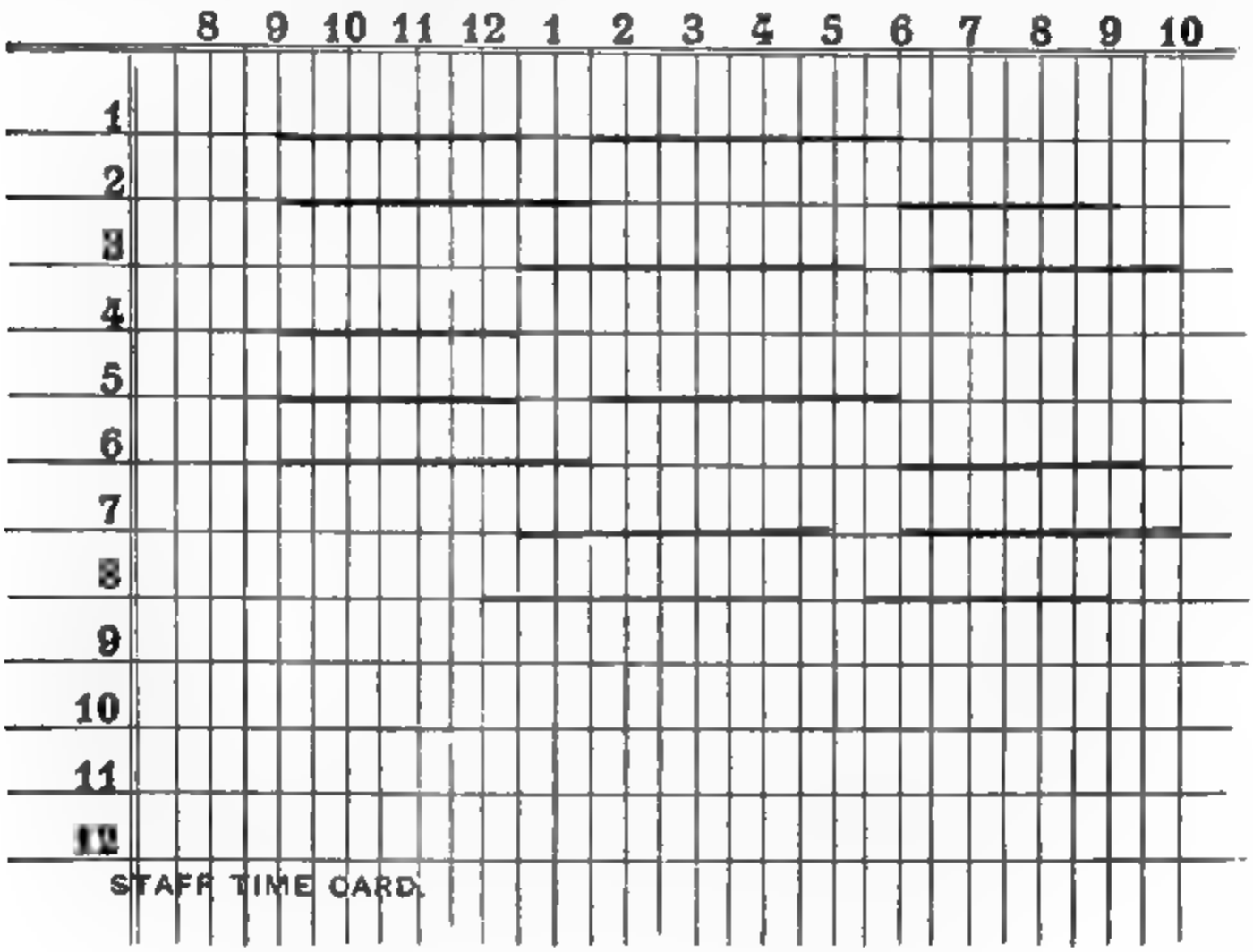

FIG. 4.—Staff Time-sheet (Section 91).

course it follows that, in a large number of cases, assistants—boys particularly—are not only difficult to obtain, but they are not, as a rule, so fit for their duties as the public require. Any intelligent lad will prefer a business career giving some hope of advancement, to one which holds out hardly any prospect of earning a living wage. This difficulty of obtaining well-educated boys of fifteen years of age and upward, who will undergo the necessary training for library work at the small pay offered, is

one which is becoming more and more pronounced every year, especially in large towns, where plenty of more remunerative work can be had. The commencing salaries paid to junior assistants in British public libraries range from 5s. weekly, or £13 per annum, to 10s. or 15s. weekly, £26 to £39 per annum. The commencing salaries paid to senior assistants range from 8s. weekly to 25s. weekly, or £65 per annum. The ages of juniors may range from sixteen to twenty, and of seniors from twenty-one and upwards. Sub-librarians receive from £50 to £175 per annum, and occasionally more in some of the larger libraries, when long service is recognized. It is difficult to fix a scale of salaries for any grade of library assistant, because local conditions and personal abilities count for so much. A sub-librarian of undoubted ability should receive half as much as the chief librarian of his own library, although it may not be necessary to commence at such a high rate. It is certainly not fair to those holding the responsible position of sub-librarian, that while the chief librarian is receiving £400 or £500, the deputy should only get £90, £100 or £150.

94. In small libraries grades of rank seem needless. Seniority is best understood by length of service and the corresponding rate of pay, than by arbitrary divisions or rank. In large libraries it may be more convenient to have grades, so as to fix suitable maximum salaries for juniors and seniors. A junior assistant is a beginner or probationer of from fourteen to sixteen years of age, corresponding to the old apprenticeship stage which formerly ruled in trades. A senior who may be twenty-one and upwards is the stage corresponding to a journeyman; while a sub-librarian may be likened to a foreman or overseer. A scale of salaries for beginners and more advanced assistants is appended. It is based upon the salaries paid in several libraries, and may be regarded as a fair compromise between the meagreness of necessity imposed by the rate limitation, and the salaries which can be paid by all libraries with over £1,000 per annum.

95. Suggested Scale of Salaries for Assistants:—

Juniors.—1st year,	£26		or 10s. weekly.			
,, 2nd ,,	31	4s.	,,	12s.	,,
,, 3rd ,,	36	8s.	,,	14s.	,,
,, 4th ,,	41	12s.	,,	16s.	,,
Seniors.—1st ,,	52				
,, 2nd ,,	62				
,, 3rd ,,	72				
,, 4th ,,	82				
,, 5th ,,	92				
,, 6th ,,	104				

These salaries, whether paid weekly or monthly, should not be subject to any deduction on account of absences from illness, holidays or other causes. The annual increases should only be granted provided the report and recommendation of the chief librarian is satisfactory. Failing a favourable report on conduct, an increase should be withheld. No assistant should be allowed to entertain the belief that increases of salary are automatic, and not dependent upon good behaviour and intelligence. In several public libraries promotion has been made conditional upon the assistants obtaining a certain number of the certificates of the Library Association. It is a good plan to arrange for the whole of the staff increases to become due on the same date, so that they can all be considered and revised at one meeting of the committee.

96. Sub-Librarian.—A sub-librarian may be described as the officer who superintends most of the routine work of a library. This is the rule in so very many cases that it is a good reason, if any were required, why only a well-trained man should be appointed to this office. The qualifications of a sub-librarian should include a knowledge of systematic classification embracing the principal schemes; a knowledge of the principal codes of cataloguing rules; extensive knowledge of popular literature; experience in the management of readers and assistants; the principles of elementary book-keeping; acquaintance with book-binding and printing methods; knowledge of the leading public library rules and regulations, statutes, and the

routine of committee business. It is the duty of the sub-librarian to take charge of the library in the occasional absences of the librarian, and to check and superintend all the details of the work of the assistants. In cases where committees are unable to promote from their own staff to this position, on the occasion of a vacancy, it is advisable to advertise in the *Athenæum* for a trained sub-librarian. The same rules which are laid down for the selection of a chief, should hold good in the case of a sub-librarian. No unqualified person should ever be appointed as sub-librarian, because it places an undue strain upon the librarian in training and superintending the duties of such a person, thereby throwing all the work out of gear, to the disadvantage of the public.

97. Women Librarians and Assistants.—The employment of women in public libraries is not so universal in the United Kingdom as in the United States, although many large towns now employ them almost exclusively. There are perhaps 2,800 municipal librarians and assistants in the United Kingdom altogether, and of these only about 400 are women. There are women who are chief librarians, and the names of the towns which employ them are set out in the *British Library Year Book*, 1900-1901, page 263. In the United States the proportion of women librarians and assistants is nearer 95 per cent. than the 14 or 15 per cent. of Britain. The chief reasons why women have not been more generally employed in library work in Britain are prejudice on the part of committees and librarians, and the difficulty of obtaining trained and well-educated women willing to work for the comparatively small remuneration offered. In America this latter obstacle does not exist owing to the available funds being much larger, and the fact that special technical training in the work can be obtained at the various library schools carried on in various States of the Union. In Britain there are now special means of obtaining technical training for library work in the classes of the Library Association, and as time goes on the important work of special education will have its due effect on the position. There can

hardly be a doubt, however, that women will be more extensively employed in British municipal libraries than they have been hitherto. In large towns it is becoming increasingly difficult to obtain and retain the services of intelligent lads who will devote themselves to the work. Women being rather less ambitious than men are more likely to remain longer at the work, and in the end become more efficient. A well-educated, intelligent girl is just as suitable for public library work as a well-educated lad, and experience shows that, if less business-like in some respects, they are more reliable in others, and give greater satisfaction to the general public. If women are employed in libraries, they should be paid at the same rate as men or lads performing similar duties. There is no reason why a woman should be paid less than a man for doing exactly the same work. The scale of pay suggested for junior and senior assistants in Section 95 should apply equally to women assistants; the juniors being regarded as girls ranging from sixteen to twenty years of age, and the seniors from twenty-one upwards. Everything recommended regarding qualifications, duties, etc., should apply to women as well as to men. It is strongly advised that, if women are employed, the staff should be composed entirely of them. A mixed staff is a decided inconvenience, requiring various kinds of separate accommodation, and is therefore undesirable.

An association with its headquarters in London has been formed to further the interests of library assistants of all kinds. It attempts, by means of meetings for the discussion of papers, study classes and branches, to improve the knowledge and status of its members. It publishes a monthly organ entitled *The Library Assistant*, and cultivates the social as well as the professional side of its work. Assistants would greatly help their own cause by supporting the Library Assistants' Association.

98. Caretakers.—A satisfactory caretaker, generally speaking, is a *rara avis*. It is difficult to find one who does not develop some radical defect—fondness for beer, laziness, Jack-

in-officism, or something worse—within twelve months of his appointment. A good man rarely stays very long, so easy is it for him to seek and obtain promotion. Caretakers' wages vary all over the country, according to the size of the library, amount of work and perquisites. In cases where a residence is provided, it is usual to secure the services of a man and his wife, and furnish him with a uniform and the usual light, coal, etc. In such cases the wages are usually less than when a man has to find his own residence. From 25s. to 30s. weekly is the wage given when a house is provided. In other instances, according to circumstances, the wages vary from 27s. 6d. to 42s. weekly. In large libraries extra assistance should always be provided, and the cleaning should be done early in the morning, before the hour of opening. A sufficient staff of cleaners should be provided to enable this to be done without interfering with the service of the public. Three hours every morning should suffice to clean any library, and it is important to employ plenty of help. The wages of cleaners vary from 6d. an hour downwards, but it is more often the practice to pay so much a week according to circumstances. Rates for this class of work differ so much that it is impossible to do more than roughly indicate a possible basis.

A caretaker should be made responsible to the librarian for the cleanness and order of the building, and his duties should include a certain number of hours' attendance in uniform as general overseer of the rooms and their frequenters. Nine or ten hours daily should be considered full time for this class of labour, and suitable arrangements must be made to enable the caretaker to remain off duty during the afternoons, when the business is quiet. In large libraries it is customary to employ more than one janitor or caretaker.

99. Staff and Public.—It is most important that good relations should exist between readers and the whole of the staff. It is a well-known fact that one or two overbearing assistants can render a public library more unpopular than almost anything else. Assistants should school themselves to

endure with philosophy the impertinence of the small number of the general public who contrive to make themselves objectionable in every town, and not visit on the heads of the inoffensive majority the sins of the inconsiderate few. The staff of every public library should learn as a first lesson, that they are the servants and not the masters of the people; and that mutual self-respect can be maintained without undue familiarity on the one side. or aloofness on the other. The Jack-in-office attitude, which so frequently infects public servants, is to be completely repressed and kept under, and the public should be taught to appreciate their own libraries, and to understand that, however inhospitable and patronizing the minions of the State may be, as shown in post-offices, tax-offices, etc., the doors of a municipal library are always open to receive and welcome every class of citizen. At the same time, undue preference should not be shown for any particular frequenter or group of frequenters, and gossiping must be sternly suppressed.

100. Staff Accommodation.—In libraries of every size private rooms of suitable dimensions should be provided for the librarian and the assistants; with work- and store-rooms for the staff and caretaker. The librarian's room in small libraries may be made large enough to serve as a committee room, and in all cases should have separate lavatory accommodation. A large safe or strong room is often attached to the librarian's room, or in a secure part of the basement, in which to store valuable documents and books. It should be shelved to contain such documents as registers, minutes and other local records in a convenient manner, and should be kept well ventilated and dry for the safe preservation of its contents. Strong rooms vary in size from 4 feet × 6 feet × 8 feet, to large apartments 20 feet × 20 feet and upwards. The usual furnishings of a librarian's room comprise a desk, table, bookshelves, chairs, hat and umbrella stand, and other office furniture. Staff mess rooms should be fitted with tables, chairs, cupboards, with a locker for each assistant, gas cooking apparatus and other appli-

ances. Work-rooms for staff use must be fitted to suit the class of work carried on, whether cataloguing and preparing books, binding or filing. Store-rooms for general purposes and for the use of the caretaker should also be provided, fitted with all necessary cupboards and shelving. Separate lavatory accommodation should be provided in libraries with staffs composed partly of men, partly of women.

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DIVISION III.

BUILDINGS.

CHAPTER VI.

THEORY AND GENERAL REMARKS.

104. Theory.—Although the subject of library buildings has been very frequently treated by various writers, it is astonishing to find an almost complete lack of literature on the important question of size limitation and the modifications arising therefrom. Controversy has raged round such questions as stacks *versus* alcoves, general *versus* special reading rooms, general *versus* separate book stores, and so on, but on the much more important question, "What size is the library to be?" hardly any theories or definite statements exist. Beyond a vague general recommendation to secure as large a site as possible, in view of future extension, writers on library architecture have not committed themselves to any principle which would guide those responsible for new library buildings in estimating the provision to be made. The chief reason for this is no doubt the cherished tradition which has always existed among librarians, that libraries are to be made as large as possible, because they are the repositories of the literature of the ages and the storehouse for every kind of printed matter which can be secured by honest, or other, means. The *museum* idea of a public library has been cultivated so long, that it is difficult to advance a plea for the more practical *workshop* idea, without raising a storm of opposition from those conservators of literature who imagine that their little parochial libraries

rival the British Museum or Bibliothèque Nationale on a reduced scale. Yet, it is this practical workshop side of the question which will be advanced here in opposition to the museum, or haphazard collecting, method, which has for years prevailed.

105. There are several very important considerations to be advanced in favour of limiting libraries both as regards book storage and accommodation for readers, and these shall be set out in order. However much one may sympathize with the view that all public libraries ought to collect *everything*—on the sentimental grounds that it may one day be used, and that nothing which illustrates past customs, life, etc., should be ignored—it is only fair to point out that this work is already being most effectively done by general or special libraries in all parts of the country. This particular form of literature conservation is the chief province of the great State libraries like the British Museum, Patent Office, India Office, National Library of Ireland, etc.; the university libraries; the endowed or special libraries like the Advocates' (Edinburgh), Mitchell (Glasgow), Rylands (Manchester); the great proprietary libraries of a special kind like the Royal Colonial Institute, Athenæum Club, Signet (Edinburgh), London Library, etc.; and scientific, law and collegiate libraries of all kinds, so that the burden of carrying on this tradition of universal garnering need not in any sense be borne by municipal libraries, save as a mere sentimental concession to convention.

106. The workshop form of public library has never been properly represented in Britain. As shown in Sections 171-177, etc., it provides for the systematic and continuous revision of the stock of the library, and in this way it becomes practicable to fix a rough limit to the size of a building, without troubling too much about the future. This is a most important matter, because it is undoubtedly the result of a general cultivation of the museum idea which has led to the formation of huge municipal libraries, a great portion of whose contents could be discarded any day without perceptible inconvenience to any one.

While the wisdom of acquiring additional land for future extension, should it be required, can be admitted, the wisdom of erecting and furnishing large buildings on the assumption that they ought to be filled as speedily as possible can be safely questioned. The result of overbuilding is to cripple the early and most critical years of the library's existence with heavy loans and their repayment, while the upkeep of a great building ultimately designed to accommodate 100,000 volumes and 500 readers, though starting with only 10,000 volumes and 100 readers, is sure to be out of all proportion.

107. What is suggested as a compromise, is that library buildings should bear some proportion to the funds available for their maintenance and the percentage of the public they are likely to attract.

108. The chief danger with most library authorities is the tendency to erect a library building out of all proportion to the funds available for its maintenance. The laudable desire for a handsome architectural exterior, which all public buildings ought to have, is frequently carried to such an extent that utility is completely sacrificed to an ornamental outside appearance. Where funds are plentiful, as they would be without a limited rate, there is no reason why a fine-looking building should not be provided, but where money is strictly limited it is necessary to consider the plans rather than the elevation. In any case, the interior arrangements should never be subordinated to the desire for mere outward show and ornament, and a library building in the hands of a competent architect can be made of a suitable and dignified design notwithstanding the rate limitation. In numerous cases most of the money provided for library buildings has been spent on the structure, with the result that all the interior fittings have been cut down to the very cheapest and meanest-looking varieties. The outside of a library building is its least important feature, and should never be carried to such extravagant lengths as to imperil the utility and appearance of the interior arrangements. There are many library buildings now existing on which much

money has been lavished apparently for the purpose of providing handsome façades to dazzle the townsfolk, but which, nevertheless, are not only inconveniently planned inside, but furnished and fitted up in a style which suggests a kitchen rather than a public institution. This is often brought about by a wrong division of the money borrowed for building and furnishing purposes. A sum is set apart for furniture, which would be ample if such permanent fittings as bookshelves, counters, screens, etc., were not included. But when these are provided out of a furniture loan it is seldom that a large enough sum is borrowed. It is important to remember that such fittings as bookcases, counters, screens, wall newspaper slopes, barriers, lifts, galleries, etc., form permanent parts of the building, and ought to be included in the building loan, which can be borrowed for thirty years. A furniture loan must be repaid within ten years, and only such movable items as tables, chairs, desks, office furniture, etc., should accordingly be bought from this fund.

109. Assuming, then, that a building must be provided which will bear some relation to the number of persons who will be attracted, the stock to be housed, and the funds available for maintenance, the following factors are presented as a basis from which committees can work in forming estimates :—

It has been definitely ascertained that 6 per cent. of the population of the average town become borrowers. For this number the average stock of books provided in lending libraries is three per borrower. Books are kept out on an average ten days each, or twelve days non-fiction, eight days fiction. In a year of 306 days each borrower will read about thirty books. Here, then, is a basis from which to start in providing accommodation for a lending library. The factors published in the Appendix give further figures which will help the work of estimating the provision to be made. If a town has 50,000 inhabitants, it will attract 3,000 borrowers, who will require 9,000 volumes as a minimum lending stock. The annual issue should be 90,000 volumes. It follows that the minimum lending library accommodation in a case like this should comprise

shelving for 9,000 volumes, and lobby or other spaces for at least seventy-five persons present at one time. In theory an issue of 300 per day should mean an average hourly attendance of thirty per hour, but in actual practice it must be recognized that the majority of borrowers attend during the last two or three hours in the evening, therefore it is safe to allow for the accommodation of at least one-fourth of the daily average number of visitors. Many lending libraries are overshelved owing to a failure to recognize the possibility of revision of stock and the equally important fact that the best shelving for books is in the homes of the people.

The same rules apply to all the other departments, and by reference to the Appendix of Factors already mentioned any one can work out the necessary areas and costs.

CHAPTER VII.

SITES AND PLANS.

110. Sites.—In choosing sites for public library buildings committees should bear in mind the following principles:—

1. They should be central and easily accessible from all parts of the district, by tramways or other conveyances.
2. They should be as far as possible isolated from all other buildings, particularly shops.
3. Quiet side streets are preferable to noisy main thoroughfares.
4. Level sites are preferable to those on steep gradients.
5. More ground than is required for immediate use should be secured if possible.

A large number of the public libraries of the country are erected upon land which has been presented to the towns, and an endeavour should be made to procure a gift of this kind before a purchase is made. It will make a very considerable difference to the size and quality of the building which can be provided if land has to be purchased. Frequently land can be secured upon a long lease at a nominal or peppercorn rent, and when this can be done it is better than borrowing more money than the rate will allow, and thereby crippling the library in its early years. In the tables in Sections 39, 40 no direct provision is made for loans for sites, but if it is absolutely necessary that money must be borrowed for the purpose, the margin which is mentioned as arising from incidental receipts will probably meet the annual repayments of a loan spread over fifty years, if the site and its purchase money are not excessive. But in any case, let the advice to committees be reiterated not to borrow money for sites till they have exhausted every hope of inducing

some public-spirited citizen or public body to come forward with a gift of land. This is the only way, save in towns with very large incomes, in which the inadequate provisions of the Public Libraries Acts can be in part overcome. At the same time it should be remembered that by these and other Acts of Parliament special power is given town councils and other public bodies to convey land to library authorities for building purposes.

111. **Architectural Competitions.**—When a suitable site has been secured the next step will be to institute a competition for the planning and design of the building. The importance of appointing a properly qualified officer as adviser before any serious step is taken or permanent arrangement is made has already been pointed out. No plan should be drawn up or accepted without the skilled guidance of a thoroughly trained librarian. The mistakes made in the past through neglect of this necessary precaution should be a warning to committees never to trust to their own choice and judgment, and not to rely entirely upon an architect, who is often unacquainted with the best arrangements for working a public library, however great his artistic and technical qualifications may be. Assuming, then, that a competent librarian has been appointed, the first thing to do after securing a site is to determine the size and kind of building required, and to make out a rough plan of the interior arrangements and prepare a specification of requirements or instructions to architects for the use of competitors. Unless there are local or other reasons against such a course, limited competition is preferable to an open one. Advertisements should be inserted in the local papers, and in *The Architect*, *Builder* and *Building News*, inviting architects to compete, and asking them to apply for the conditions if an open competition is decided upon. Premiums should be fixed for the designs placed first, second and third in order of merit by the assessor who judges the plans. These must be regulated by the size and style of the building. £50, £30 and £20 have been offered for buildings costing £4,000 and upwards. Pre-

miated designs become the property of the committee. The Royal Institute of British Architects, London, should be asked to nominate an assessor at a fee to be determined, and of course such assessor will not be a competitor. It is usual to merge the premium of the successful architect whose design is carried out into the fee paid him for superintending the work, which amounts to 5 per cent. on the cost of the building, including all extras.

112. **Instructions and Plan.**—The instructions to the competitors should be accompanied by a plan of the site drawn to quarter- or eighth-inch scale, and showing building line and ancient lights, if any. They should specify the amount and kind of accommodation required on each floor, and state that the cost should not exceed a certain sum exclusive of movable furniture. Permanent fittings should include bookcases, wall and standard; screens, counters, wall slopes for newspapers, barriers, and any other kind of fixture. The conditions as regards premiums, assessing, etc., should be sent along with the instructions and site plan. All competitive designs should be drawn to the same scale (one-fourth or one-eighth inch), and should be finished in black without colour or ornament. Perspective drawings, in addition to elevations, may be sent at the discretion of each competitor. Each set of drawings should include a plan of every floor, showing proposed arrangement of bookcases, counters, furniture, etc.; an elevation of every face; and a section through the building both ways. Plenty of time should be allowed for the sending in of designs. Three months at least from date of advertisement. Usually the assessor draws up the instructions, and afterwards circulates answers to any questions which may be put by the different competitors.

113. **Selection of Plan.**—The competing drawings should be sent in unmarked in any way, but should be numbered in order of receipt, so that the assessor and committee cannot tell who the author is. The competitor's name and address should be sent separately in a sealed envelope marked on the outside

with the same number, and the words "architect's name and address," or something to the same effect, to prevent accidental opening. It is the duty of the assessor to advise the committee as to the practicability of every design; to determine if it is in accordance with the instructions; to ascertain if it can be carried out for the amount stated; and to judge which designs are first, second and third in order of merit after fulfilling the conditions of the instructions.

114. The following rules for judging library plans will be found useful; they are based on a wide experience of planning in all its departments, and can be used by architectural assessors and librarians as a guide:—

1. No public room should be made a thoroughfare leading to any other public room.
2. All exits from public rooms should be within view of the staff.
3. Oversight of public rooms should, if possible, be secured without the need for special officers in every room. For this purpose ornamental glazed partitions are preferable to solid walls.
4. No passage for public traffic should be less than 4 feet wide. Where movable chairs are used the passages should be from 6 to 8 feet wide.
5. Cross gangways between table and bookcase-ends should not be less than 3 feet if used as thoroughfares, but may be 2 feet only if simply spaces to enable readers or assistants to pass round.
6. Bookcases should not exceed 7 feet 6 inches in height either in open access or closed libraries, and shelves should be of the uniform length of 3 feet, unless for folio and quarto stock, when 18 inches will be found better. For fiction wall shelves in open access libraries, the depth should not exceed 7 inches.
7. Standard bookcases in open access libraries should be spaced at not less than 6 feet apart when facing each other, and in closed libraries at not less than 3 feet apart.
8. Magazine room readers should be allowed not less than 12 superficial feet, including table and passage room.
9. Reference library readers should be allowed not less than 18 superficial feet, including table and passage room.
10. Where indicators are used in lending libraries the counter space should provide 5 feet run for every 4,000 volumes stored, or 15 inches per 1,000 numbers, and at least 10 feet run of clear space for service. The public space in front of any such counter should not be less than 10 feet wide, unless in a very small library, when it may be 6.
11. In open access lending libraries the spaces should not be less than those shown in No. 7 above. As a general rule it will be found

easy and fairly accurate to allow 20 square feet to every borrower estimated to be present at one time, and disregard the provision of stock. In this calculation allowance is made for gangways, stock and readers.

12. Allow nine volumes per foot run in lending library shelving, and eight volumes per foot run in reference library shelving. A 7 foot 6 inch bookcase should give an average of eight shelves per tier in a lending library, and about the same in a reference library, if separate provision is made in wall cases for folio and other large books.
13. Public lobbies and staircases must be arranged according to the rules laid down by any local or general building act or bye-law.
14. Newspaper slopes should allow an average of 4 feet run for every paper. This will provide for spaces between papers.

In some towns the competition designs for library buildings have been placed on exhibition, to enable the public and other interested persons to compare the premiated with the other drawings. This seems an admirable procedure, regarded as a mere matter of policy, but the practical advantage is somewhat doubtful.

115. Library Planning.—In subsequent chapters are set out in detail some of the chief requirements of the different departments of a public library, and here may be noted a few general principles, illustrated with plans. It is impossible to fix any data which will apply to all sizes and shapes of sites, on account of differences introduced by difficulties of lighting, approaches and varying local requirements. The data given above (Section 114) can be applied in most cases, as dimensions of this class seldom vary, but any additional data are certain to be modified by local conditions.

The chief principle to be emphasized is the one already stated in Section 104, and further considered at Sections 171-177, namely, that public libraries should be constructed and stocked with the view to constant revision, and that their size should be limited by the number of *live* books likely to be wanted at any period. What the number of actually living books will be at any given period, it is difficult to say, but judging by the selections which have been made in histories of literature and in such books as Sonnenschein's *Best Books*, it may be roughly estimated that there are not more than 50,000

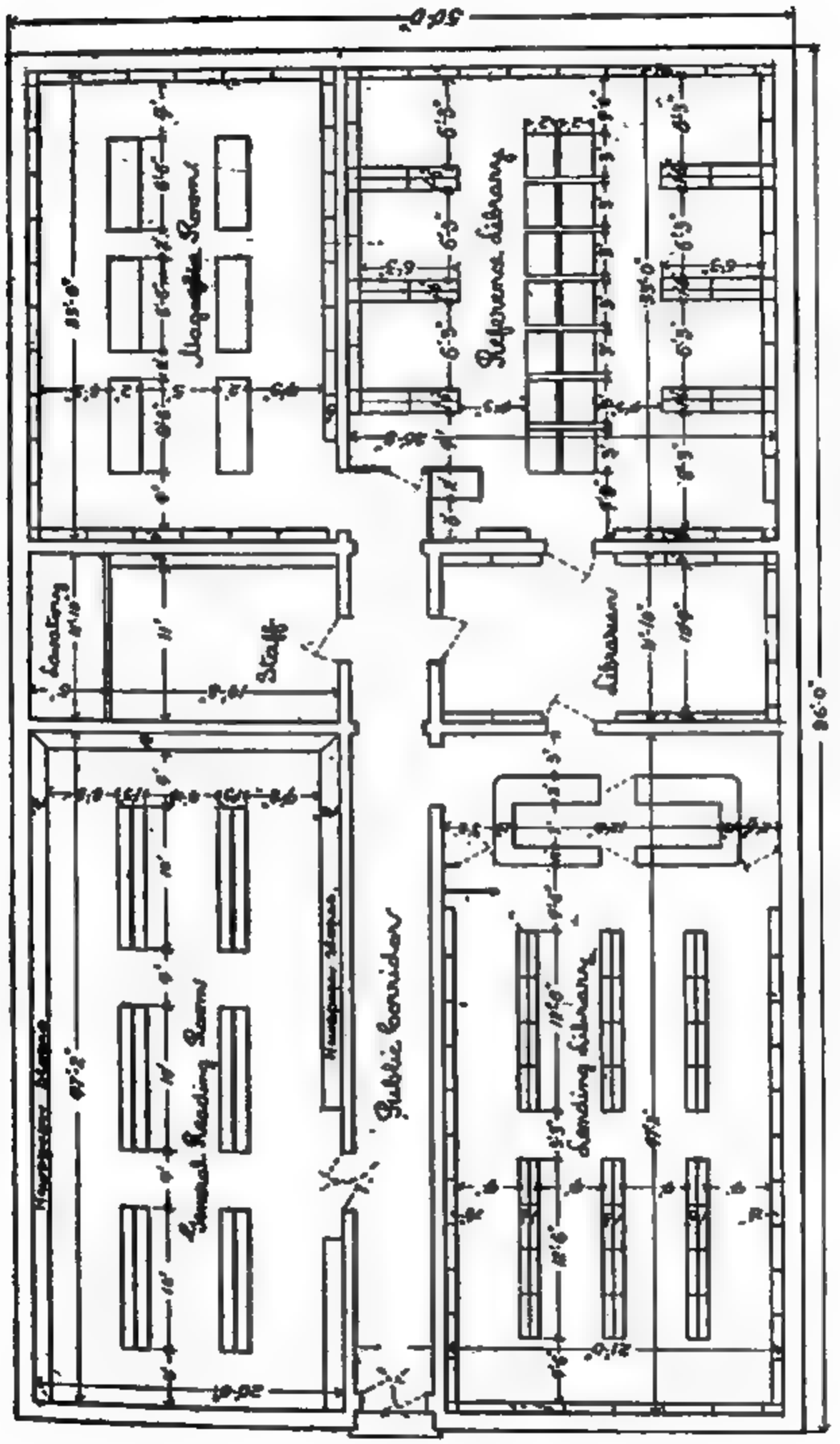

Fig. 5.—Sketch Plan for a Small Town Library (Section 115).

works of perennial interest which are worth storing in a modern workshop library. Even this huge number could be reduced

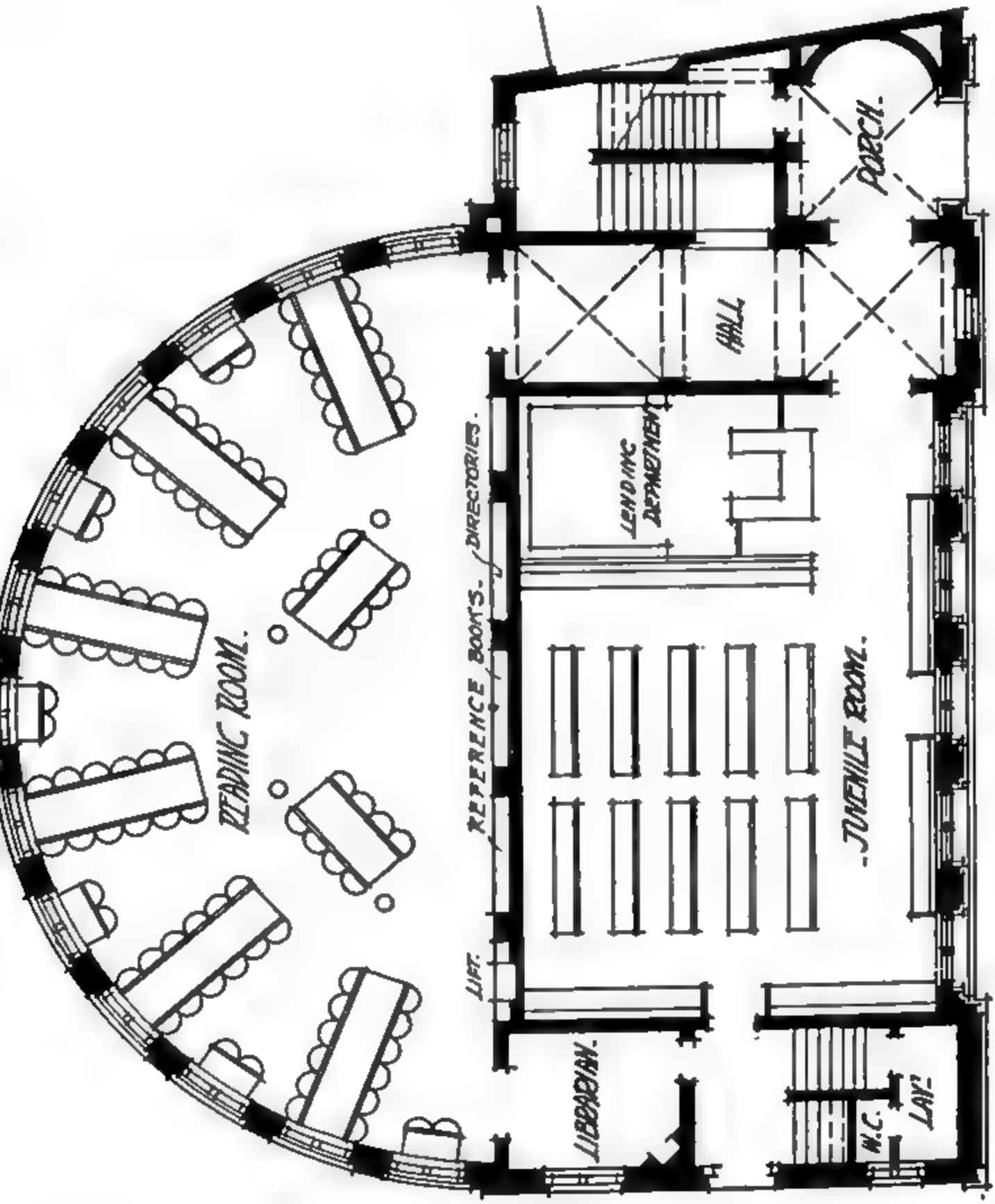

FIG. 6.—North Islington Library, with Reading Room on Ground Floor (Section 116).

by one-half, and still be made thoroughly representative of every literature, every period and every subject of human interest. In the largest municipal libraries a very considerable

proportion of the stock is composed of duplicates of popular books in central and branch libraries, while practically one-half of the stock of such libraries consists of *dead* literature which

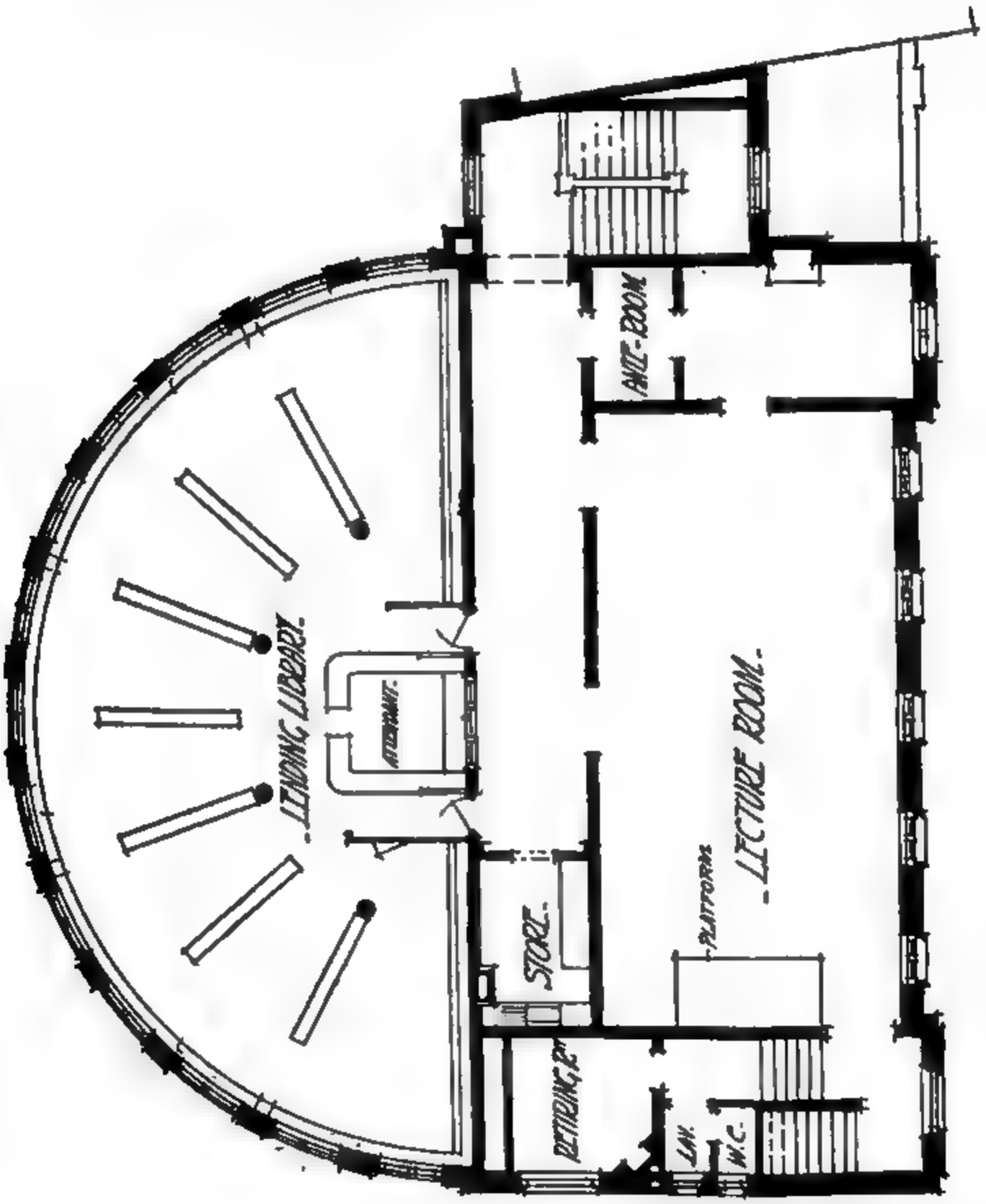

Fig. 7.—North Islington Library, with Lending Department on First Floor (Section 116).

is never inquired for. The provision of book-storage should, therefore, be limited in the case of municipal libraries, not so much by the size of building which can be afforded by the

income, but by the actual living books which are likely to be required.

In libraries which start with incomes of £500, provision should not be made for more than 20.000 volumes. In those with commencing incomes of £1,000 to £2,000, room for 40,000 volumes will be found ample. From £2,000 to £3,000, 60,000 volumes; from £3,000 to £4,000, 100,000 volumes; from £4,000 to £5,000, 130,000 volumes; from £5,000 to £6,000, 160,000 volumes, and so on. Bearing these figures in mind, the plan-

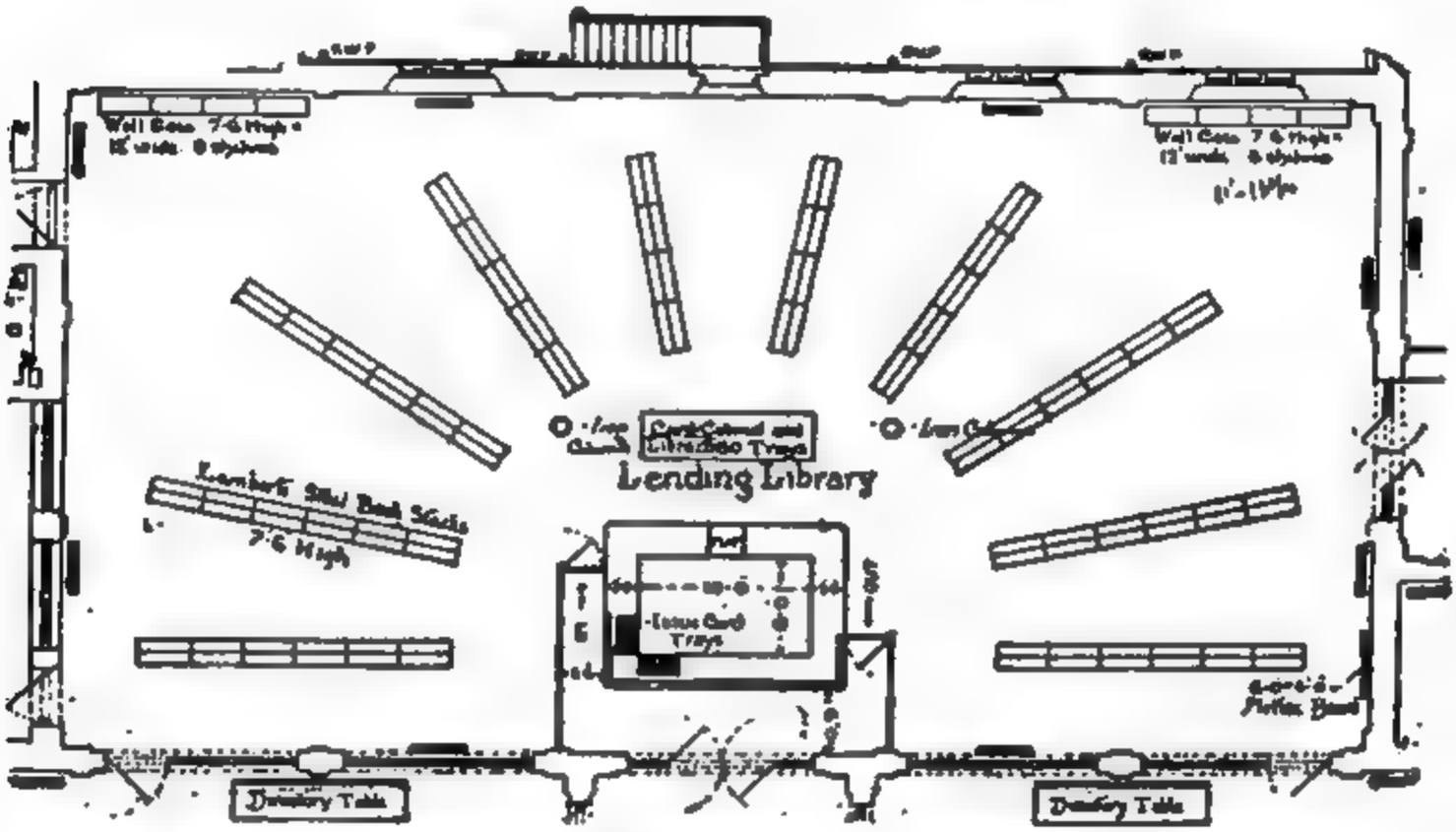

FIG. 8.—Lambeth (Herne Hill Branch) Open-access Library with Radiating Stacks in a Square Room (Section 117).

ning of library buildings becomes greatly simplified. The main points to be aimed at in library planning are good light, convenient access to rooms, a fair amount of oversight, and the arrangement of departments so as to secure quietness in the principal reading rooms. For this last reason, the reference library should always be put farthest away from both newsroom and lending library, so that the traffic of these departments will not disturb readers. In small libraries it is best and most convenient to keep the whole of the departments on one floor, obtaining light, if necessary, from the roof. The

sketch plan, Fig. 5, shows a convenient arrangement for such a library.

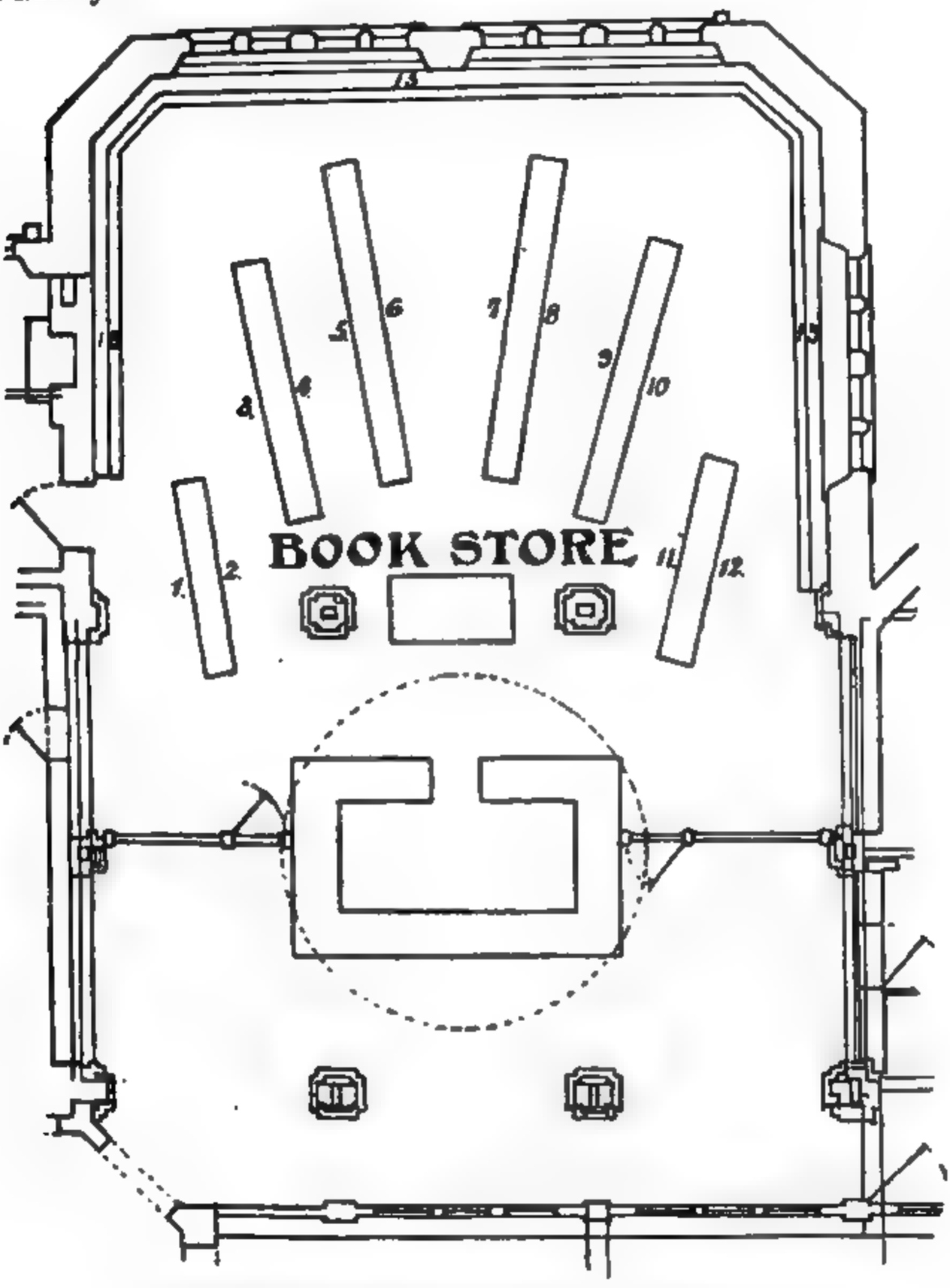

FIG. 9.—Montrose Open-access Lending Library (Section 117).

116. The plans which are given in this section illustrate most of the principal points raised. They will also serve as suggestions to committees, librarians and architects charged

with the establishment of new library buildings. Figs. 6 and 7 represent a building designed to be worked on the open-access system in each department, and in every respect it is a model of good arrangement and convenience.

117. The principle of radiation to secure oversight and ease of working is well illustrated in this plan. The next plan (Fig.

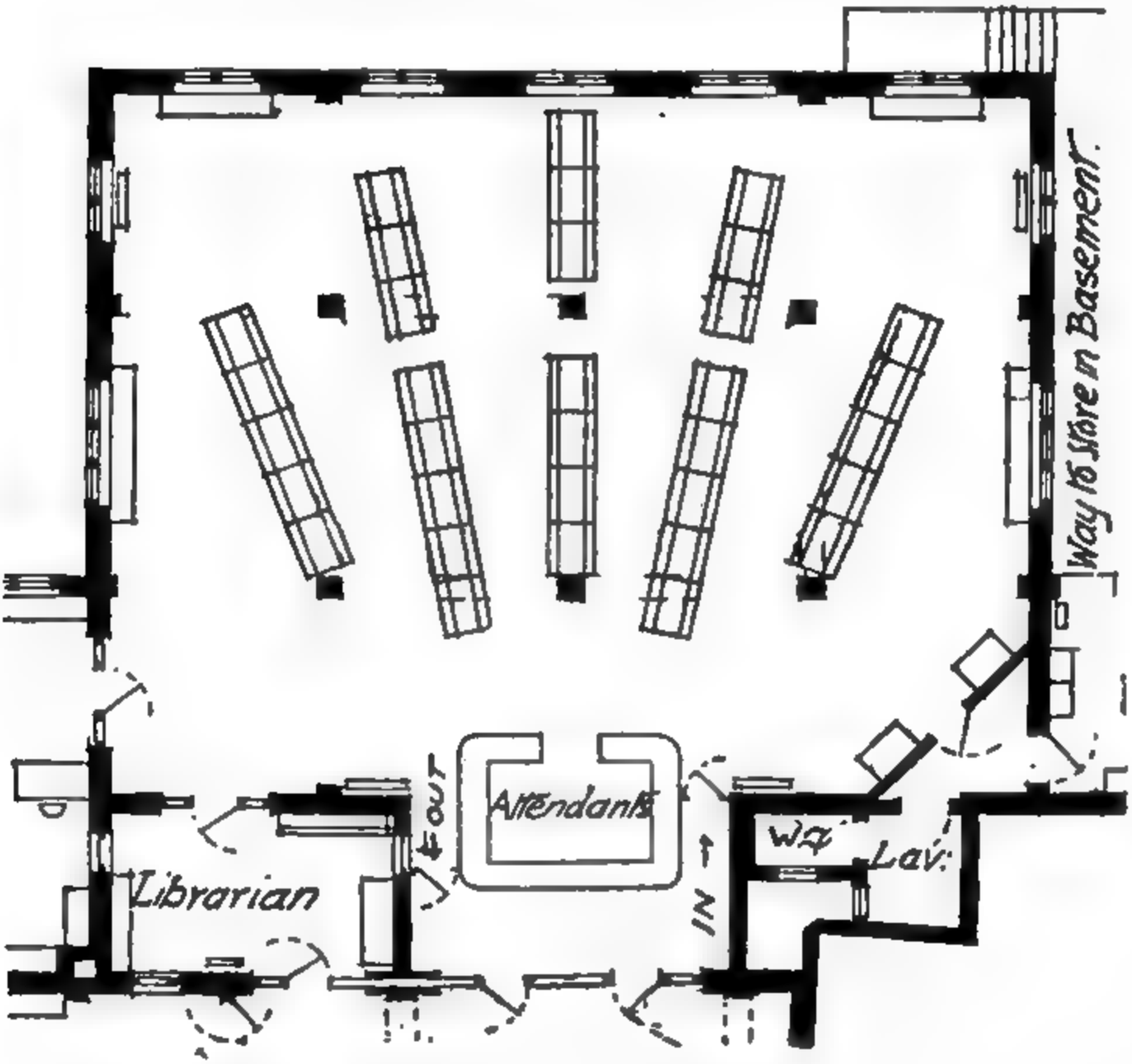

FIG. 10.—Bromley (Kent) Open-access Lending Library with Radiating Stacks in a Square Room (Section 117).

8) shows the plan of radiation applied to an open-access lending department in a square room, and here it is obvious that considerable loss of space is sustained in the angles. The same objection applies to the arrangement of Figs. 9 and 10. Figs. 6 and 7 show the children's room and general reading room on the ground floor, and the lending library on the first

floor, together with a lecture room. It is argued in favour of this that fewer people go to the lending department than to the

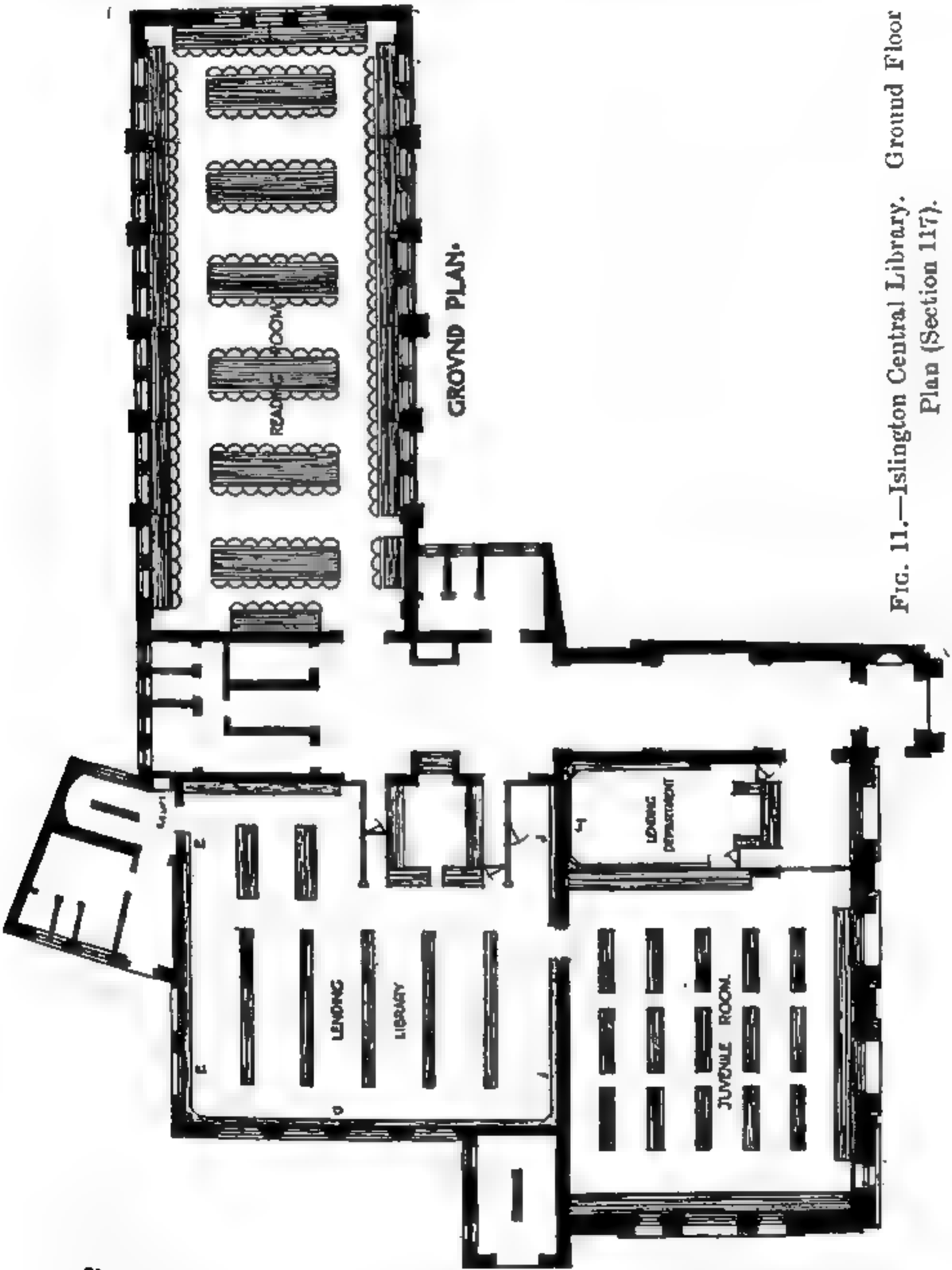

FIG. 11.—Islington Central Library. Ground Floor Plan (Section 117).

reading room, and that the plan is therefore more convenient. In practice it has been found an admirable arrangement. Figs. 11

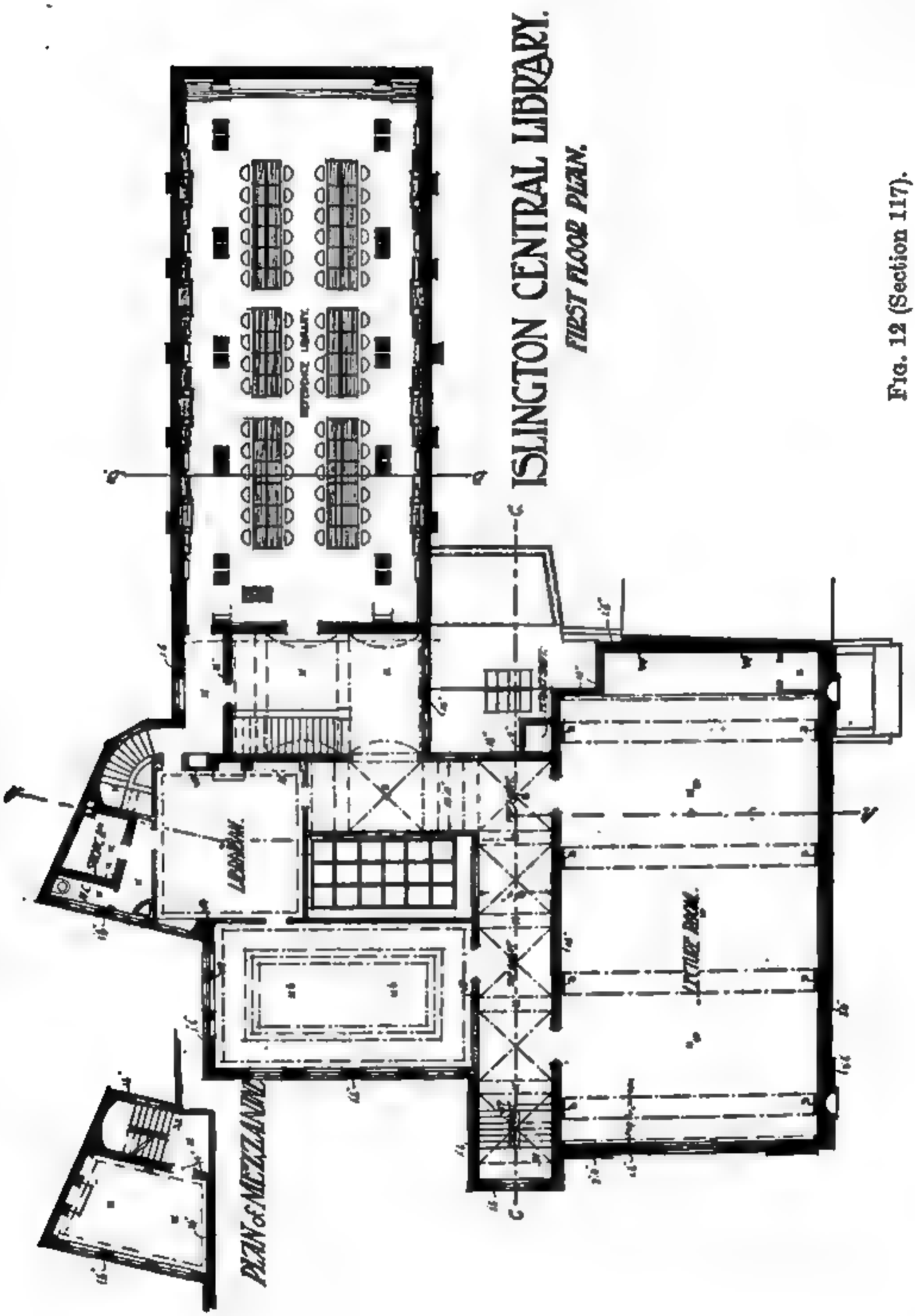

Fig. 12 (Section 117).

and 12 show the arrangement of a large library, fully equipped with all departments, and in this the radial arrangement of bookcases in the lending library has not been adopted because of the shape of the room. Another plan on the same principle

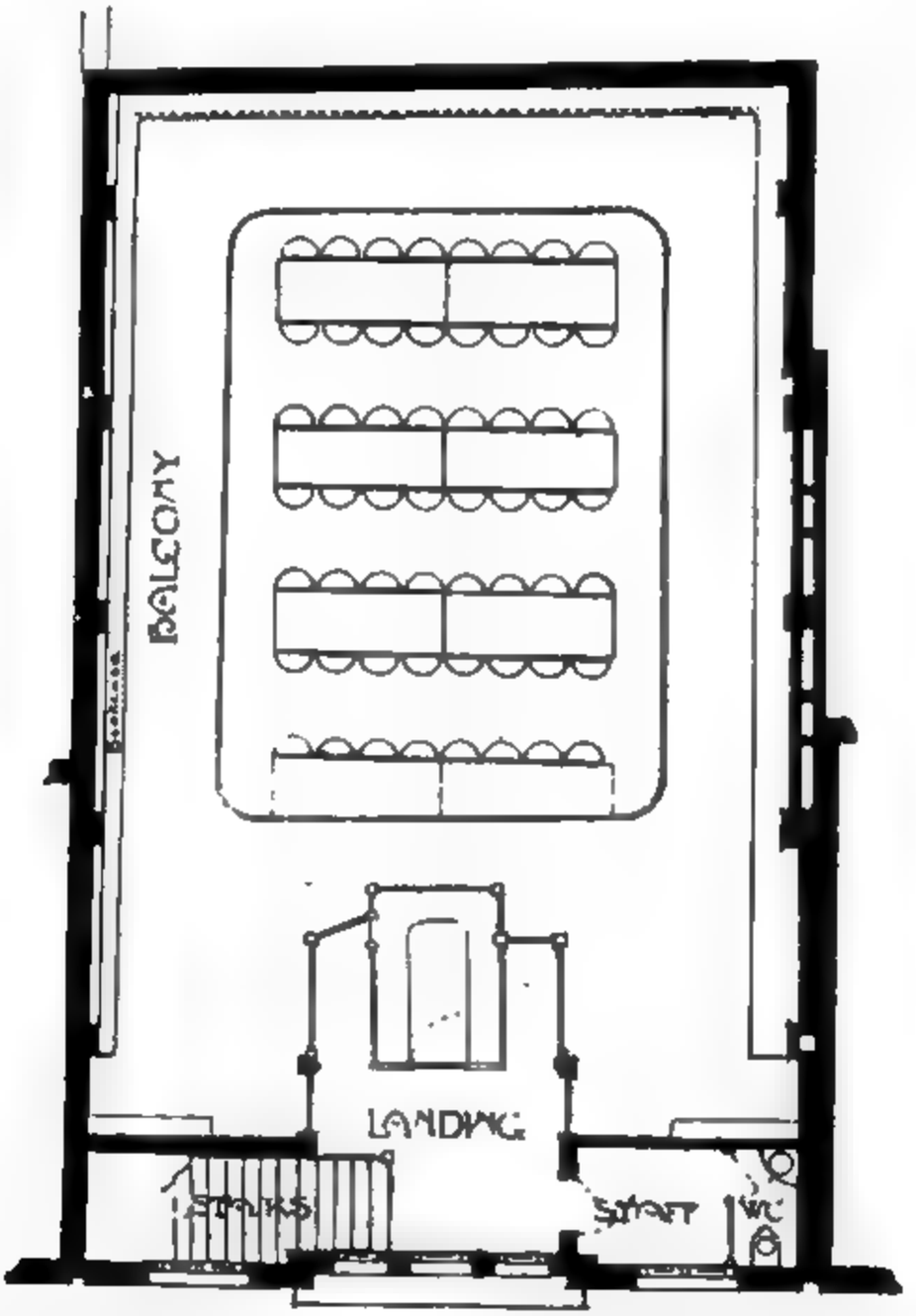

FIG. 13.—Fulham (North) Library Plan showing Open-access Lending Library on First Floor and Reading Room, through Well, on Ground Floor (Section 117).

(Fig. 23) illustrates an open-access library without radiating bookcases, and a double entrance and exit counter. An interesting arrangement for a small open-access library is afforded by the Fulham North Library, designed by the late Franklin T. Barrett, in which the lending department is shown in a

gallery surrounding a reading room on the ground floor (Fig. 13).

118. The following plans of closed libraries, worked on various systems, speak for themselves, and show clearly the variety of ways in which this kind of library can be arranged.

Fig. 14 shows a semi-circular counter with the books arranged behind, the borrowers' space being flanked by a

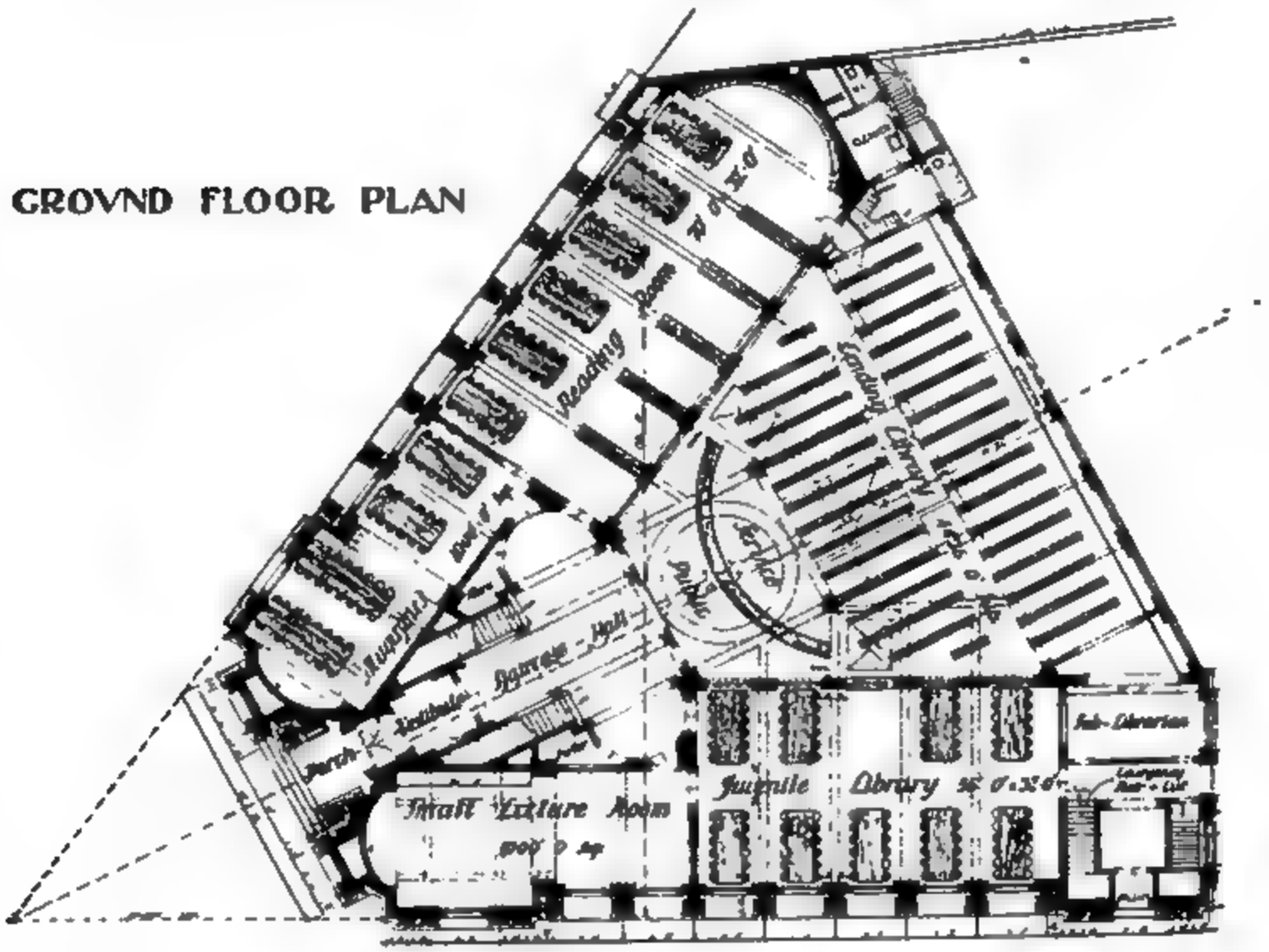

Fig. 14.—St. Pancras Central Library, showing Lending Department arranged for Indicator Charging (Section 118).

reading room and juvenile room. Figs. 15 and 16 are arranged with long counters providing for indicators for fiction and card changing for non-fiction, with the other departments grouped round. Fig. 17 shows an indicator occupying the sides of a large lobby on the first-floor, and Fig. 18 a plan for working a library on the open-access system for non-fiction, and the indicator for fiction.

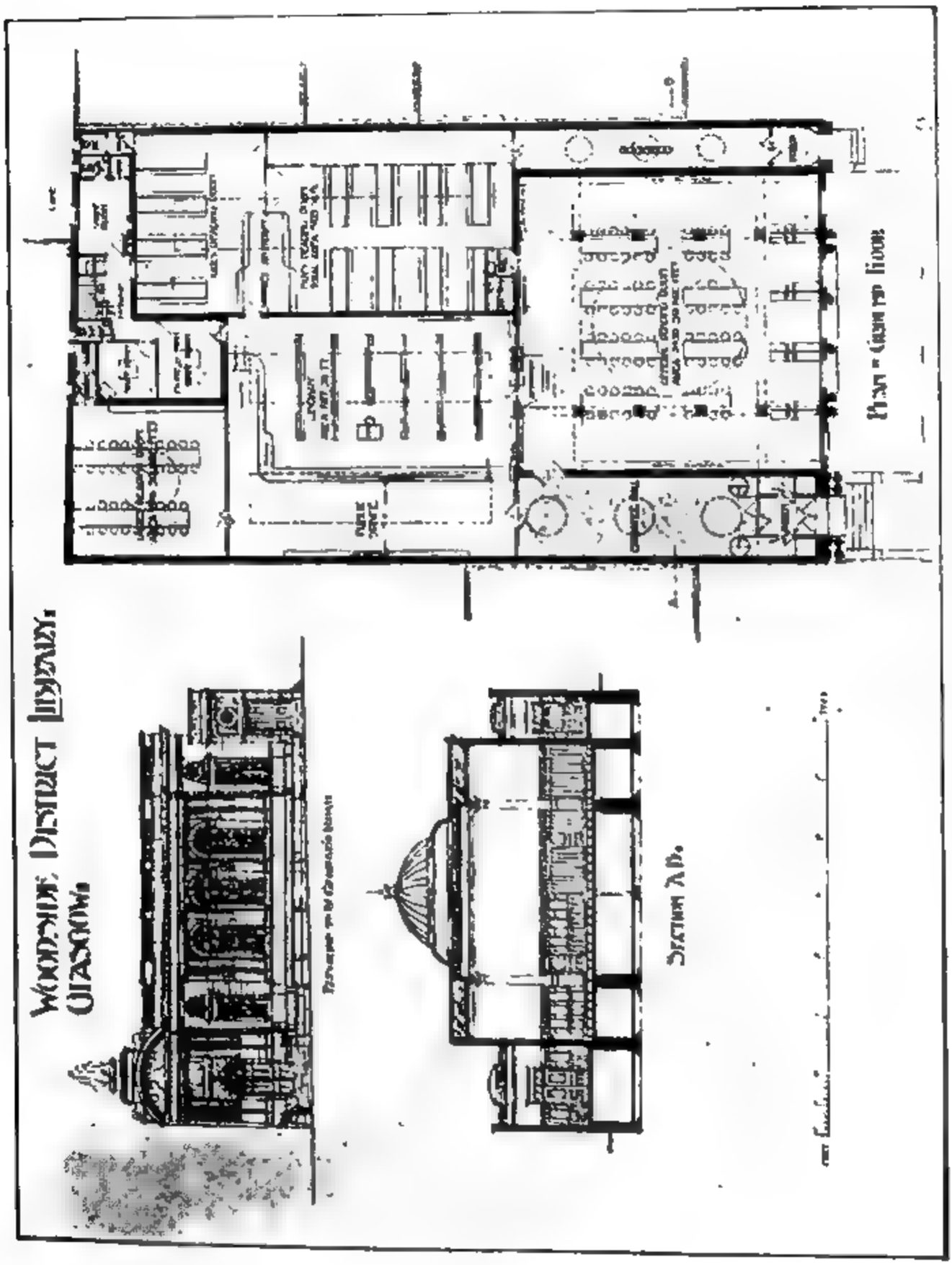

FIG. 15.—Glasgow Branch Library Plan and Elevation (Section 118).

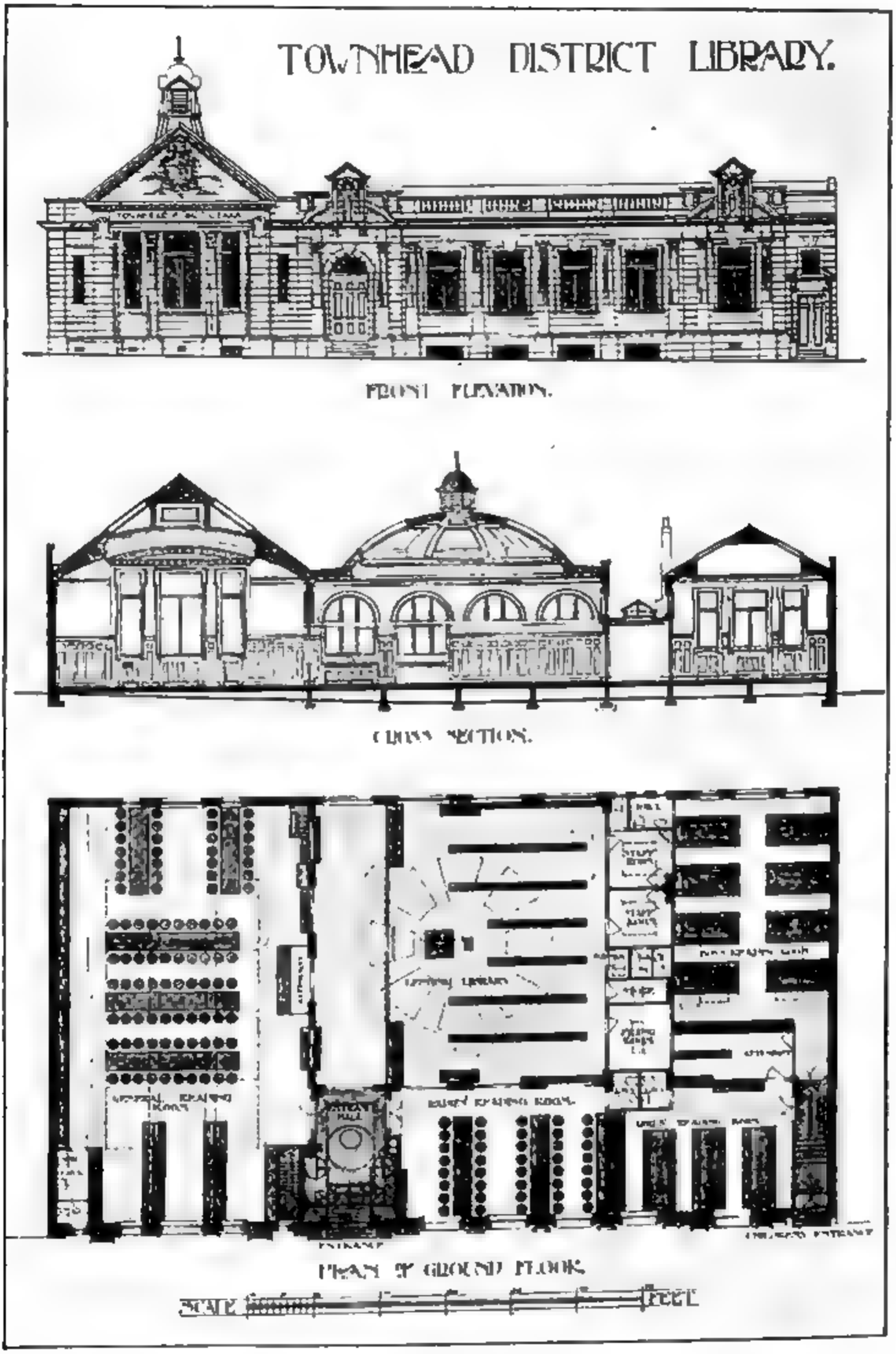

Fig. 16.—Glasgow Branch Library, Plan and Elevation (Section 118).

119. The plan on p. 102 shows a case in which the arrangements are designed as a compromise between whole and partial open access, the lending department having open access for non-fiction and the closed system for fiction (Fig. 18). It is doubtful if any advantage arises from this compromise, and certainly readers are denied the privilege of referring from class to class, and cut off from the pleasure of seeing the whole of a classified collection of books at one time. The great additional mutual oversight of reader over reader is also lost, and

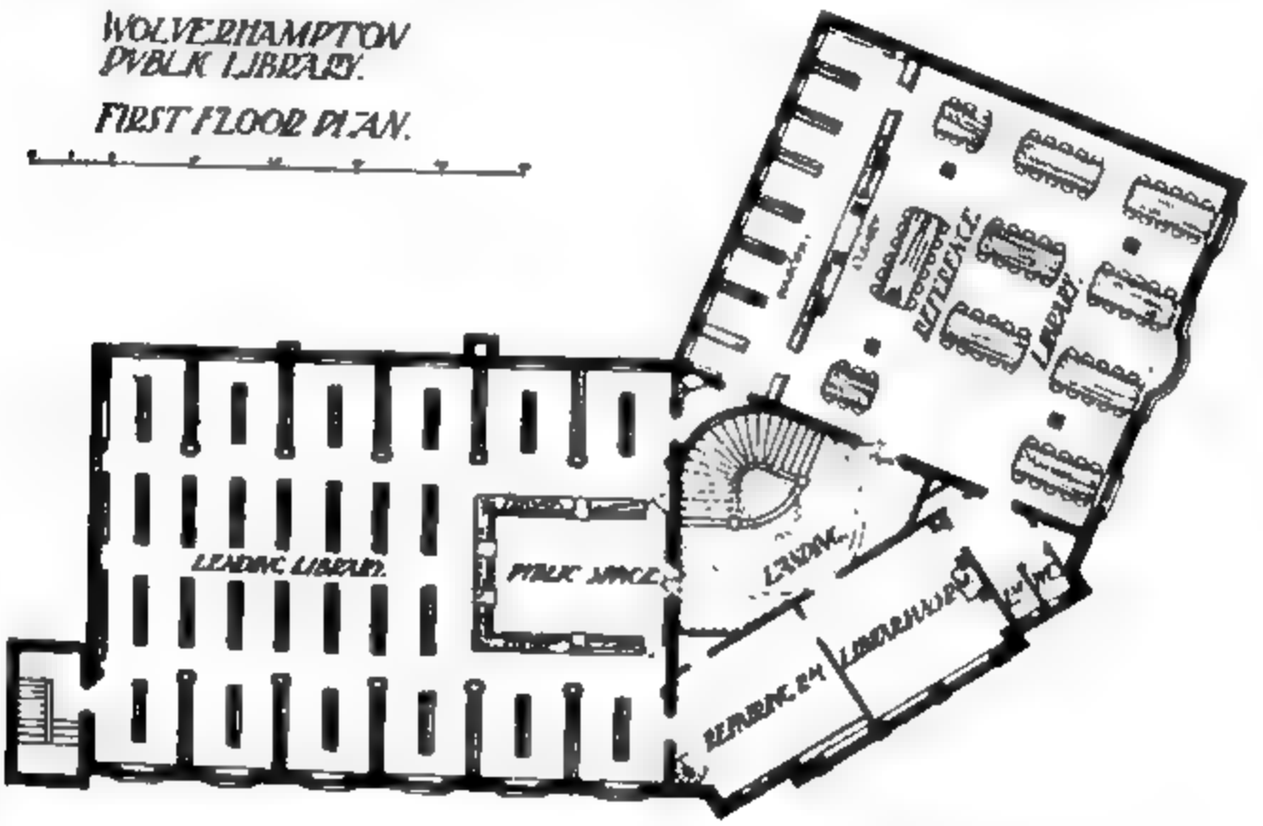

FIG. 17.—Lending Library on First Floor adjoining Reference Library (Section 118).

there is always the suspicion attaching to such a compromise, that a favoured class has been created.

120. **Building Specification and Contracts.**—The specification for the building on which builders are required to tender will be prepared by the architect, and it is usual in most cases to have the quantities abstracted by a surveyor, so that contractors can all tender for the same thing. The surveyor's fee, 1 per cent. to 1½ per cent., according to the total amount, is usually included in the specification, as are also allowances for other extras, such as foundation-stones, memorial tablets,

and such items as presentation trowels, etc., if a foundation-stone laying is made a public ceremony.

121. The contract for the building may be publicly advertised in such journals as the *Contract Journal*, *Builder*, *Building News* and the local newspapers, or may be confined to a few selected firms, and the tenders shoul', when received, be opened at a meeting of the library authority, to which the firms who tender may be invited. When a contract is accepted and signed it should contain a clause specifying that all extras

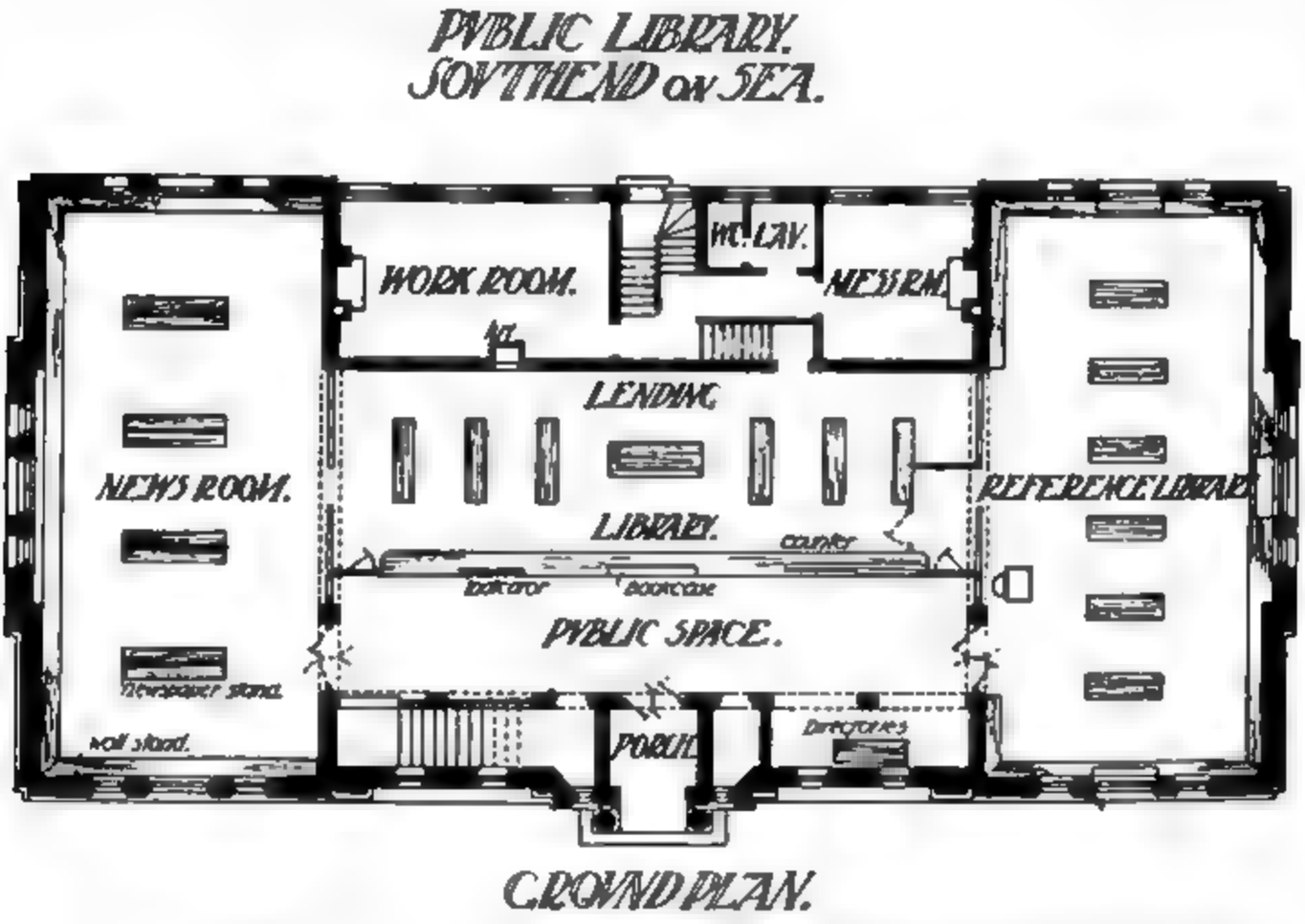

FIG. 18.—Lending Library with Open-access for Non-fiction (Section 119).

must be sanctioned by the library authority before being put in hand, and must be certified by the architect when completed. It is well to avoid extras by making a careful estimate in advance, but if they are supplied, great precaution must be used to see that they are limited and strictly watched.

122. A clerk of works must be appointed to watch over the building operations on behalf of the library authority and the architect, and it is a wise and most economical policy to pay for a first-rate man. The wages of a competent man, who is

usually recommended by the architect, will amount to from £3 to £5 weekly, according to circumstances.

The architect's fee is 5 per cent. on the total cost of the building, including extras and all furniture or other fittings which he may design.

123. Opening Ceremony, etc.—There are certain ceremonial matters connected with the laying of foundation-stones, unveiling of memorial stones or brasses and opening ceremonies, which each locality must arrange to suit its own needs. An opening ceremony of a public character is always so useful in making known a library, that it ought when possible to be arranged. It need not be a very expensive function, and if an eminent public personage, local or otherwise, can be secured to perform the ceremony, so much the better. It is a doubtful point whether the expense of an opening ceremony can be defrayed from the library rate. In districts where the expenditure is audited by a Government auditor, a moderate sum may be passed, with the caution not to incur such charge again, but it is dangerous to assume that this expenditure will always be allowed. Such expenditure, if incurred, would not of course include any extravagant items such as banquets, receptions, etc., but be confined to printing and other expenses.

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Hamlin (A. D. F.) Views of a consulting architect [on library sites, selection of architect, etc]. L. J., v. 31, Conf. no., p. 57.
Hare (H. T.) Some suggestions on the planning of public libraries. L. A. R., v. 8, p. 148.
Henry (W. E.) Comparative cost of library buildings. P. L., v. 8, p. 64.
Pite (B.) Architecture for libraries [art view]. L. (N. S.), v. 1, p. 326.
—— Public library architecture. Int. Con., 1897, p. 106.
Soule (C. C.) Library rooms and buildings, 1902. (A. L. A. Tracts, No. 4.)
Utley (H. M.) How to plan a public library. L. J., v. 24, Conf. no., p. 21.

125. The heating, lighting, ventilation and cleaning of library buildings are all matters which concern the architecture, and it will suffice if reference is made to the following works on the subject :—

Burgoyne (F. J.) Lighting, heating and ventilation. *See his* "Library Architecture," pp. 26-38.
Champneys (A. L.) Public libraries, a treatise on their design, construction and fittings. London. 1907.
Discussion on Lighting, Heating and Ventilation. Lib. J., 1893, Conf. no., p. 28.
Greenhough (W. H.) Ventilation, heating and lighting of public libraries. L., v. 2, pp. 381, 421.
Hart (J. W.) Heating, lighting and ventilating public libraries. Greenwood's Year Book, 1897, p. 38.
Patton (N. S.) Heating, ventilation and lighting of libraries. U. S. Educ. Rept., 1892-1893, v. 1, p. 718.

DIVISION IV.

FITTINGS AND FURNITURE.

CHAPTER VIII.

MISCELLANEOUS FIXTURES AND FITTINGS.

126. It is important to note that all fittings which are fixtures, like most of those about to be described in the following chapter, should be regarded as part of the permanent structure, and not as movable furniture. Such fittings should be included in the loan raised for building, which can be borrowed for thirty years, and not in that raised for furniture which can only be borrowed for ten years. The additional twenty years for which money can be borrowed for permanent buildings will be found to make a very considerable difference in the annual repayments.

127. **Counters and Barriers.**—Counters and barriers are required chiefly in lending and reference libraries, or in situations where it is necessary to cut readers off from books or private rooms. No lending library counter which has to carry an indicator should be more than thirty inches high and eighteen inches wide, and for ledger or card charging and open access the dimensions need not be more than thirty-two inches high and two feet wide. Reference library counters for cutting readers off from the books and for service should be thirty-two inches high and two feet wide. All counters should be fitted on the staff side with shelves and cupboards, and on the public side the panelling should be raised at least four inches from the floor to prevent it from being kicked and marked. It is a

useful plan to fit up the back of a long counter with shelves, drawers and cupboards alternately, as shown in the following diagram (Fig. 19):—

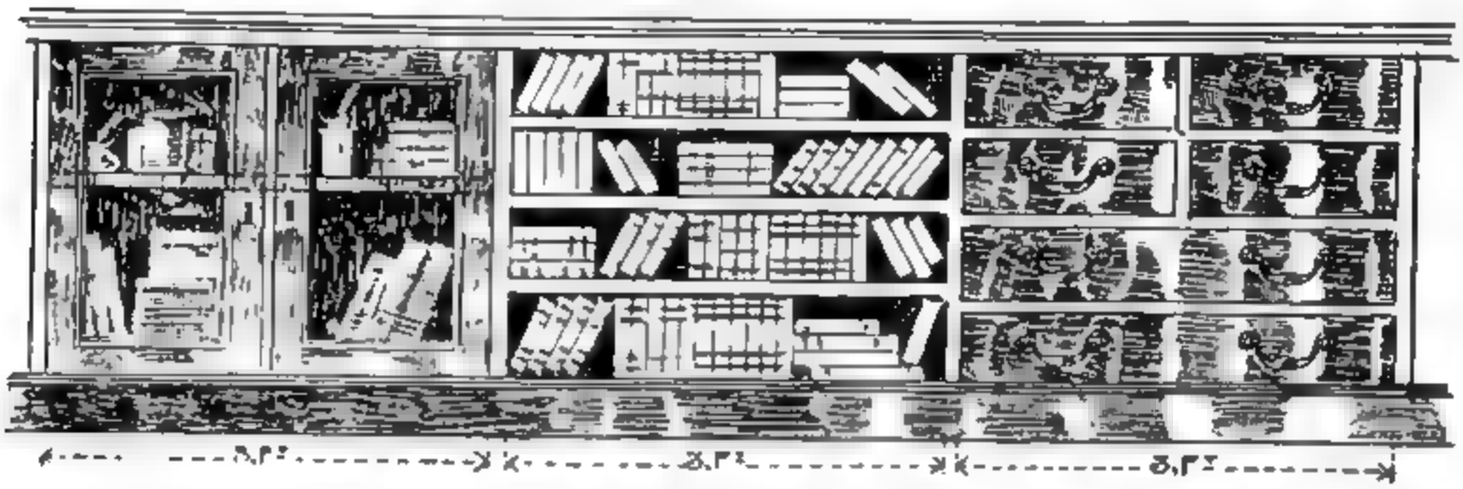


Fig. 19.—Back of Library Counter (Section 127).

This arrangement can be carried out to any extent and in any order, according to space. In lending library counters a slot for money should be made in the top of the counter over

Fig. 20 —Fulham (South) Open-access Counter (Section 129).

one of the small locked drawers. This will form the till for cash receipts from fines, catalogues, sales, etc.

128. Barriers for open-access lending and reference libraries

are made in various forms. In small open-access libraries the barriers need only be large enough to control the entrances and exits of readers.

129. Lending library barriers for open access are planned in a variety of ways to take charging trays, etc. The following are typical illustrations of barriers or combined counters and screens specially designed for open-access libraries. The object of the

FIG. 21.—North Islington Staff Enclosure, Open-access (Section 129).

glazed screen is to protect the staff from draughts and the charging system from being tampered with. The plans and views of open-access barriers in Figs. 20-22 show the usual arrangement for ordinary purposes, and an imaginary design for a library doing a very large business requiring three assistants at each side is shown in Fig. 24. By means of this it would be possible for six assistants, three at each side, to

discharge and charge books at the rate of 1,400 per hour, a speed never required anywhere.

For all practical purposes a barrier with two wickets on the entrance side and one at the exit will serve for the largest single library in existence (Fig. 23). The treadle latches such as are fitted in the open-access libraries of Croydon, Clerkenwell, Hornsey, Lambeth, Darwen, Southport, etc., will be found well

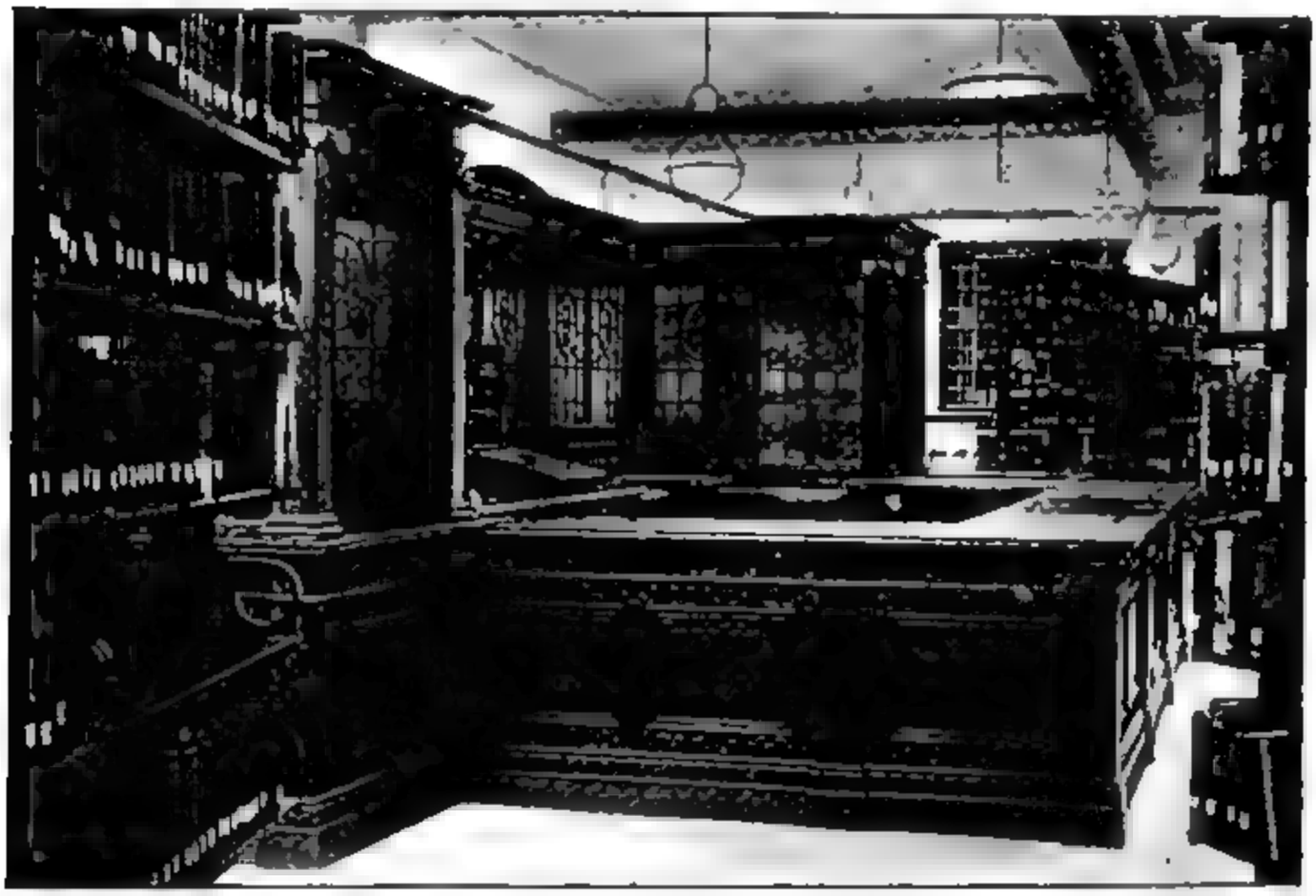


Fig. 22.—Lambeth (Herne Hill) Branch Library Open-access Barrier (Section 129).

adapted for the purpose of controlling the wickets of both single and double open-access barriers (Fig. 25).

The chief objection to wickets hinged at one side is their tendency to slam, no matter what kind of controlling springs or buffers are used. In course of time every form of pneumatic or other spring loses its power, and it is beginning to be realized that some effective form of noiseless turnstile or very light barrier on rising butts would perhaps be an improvement. Where lending libraries are isolated, the trouble is not so marked as in cases where they adjoin reading rooms.

130. The plans already printed (Figs. 14-18) explain better than words the form of counters best adapted for lending libraries using the indicator system of issue.

It should be recognized that the space for borrowers in front of an indicator ought to be double what is generally allowed, in order to prevent hustling and crowding at busy times. Not less than four square feet per person likely to be present at one

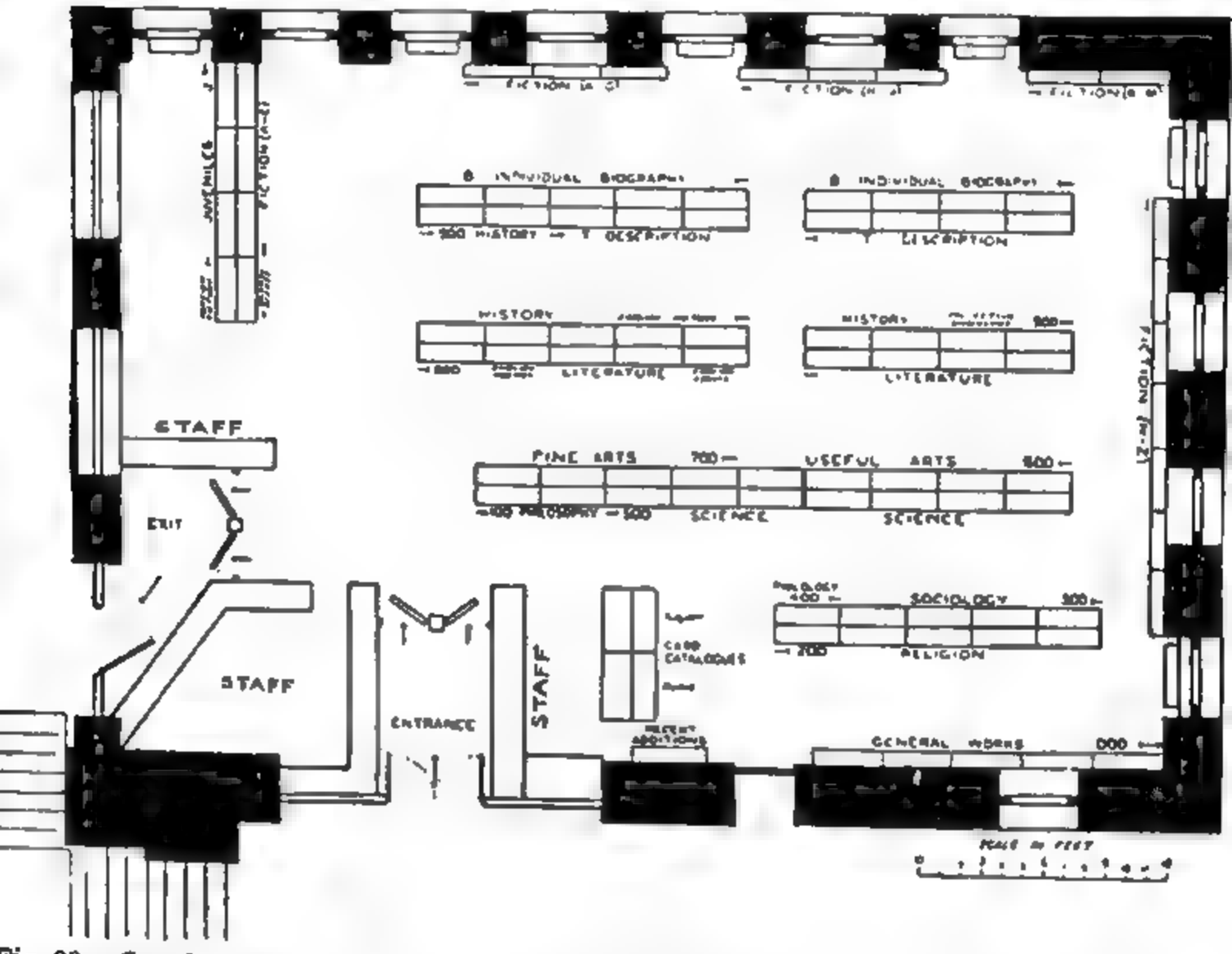


Fig. 23.—Croydon Central Library. Open-access Lending Department, Showing Double Wickets (Section 129).

time should be allowed. Thus a town with 3,000 borrowers would have an average daily issue of about 300 volumes, which might mean seventy-five people present at one time, counting companions, and thus 300 square feet of borrowers' lobby would be necessary as a minimum; or a space 30 by 10 feet. It is not often that one finds lobbies planned on this scale. The height of a counter designed to carry an indicator should not exceed thirty

inches, and the top need not be more than eighteen inches wide. The length of the counter will depend entirely upon the kind of indicator used, and whether it is classified or not, or intended for all the stock or only for fiction. The indicators most used all differ in size (*see* Section 394, etc.), and this factor must be taken into account in designing the counter.

131. Sometimes a simple barrier is required in some kinds of reference libraries to separate bookcases from reading rooms. This may be either fixed or movable, and a good form can be constructed of ornamental ironwork, surmounted by a polished

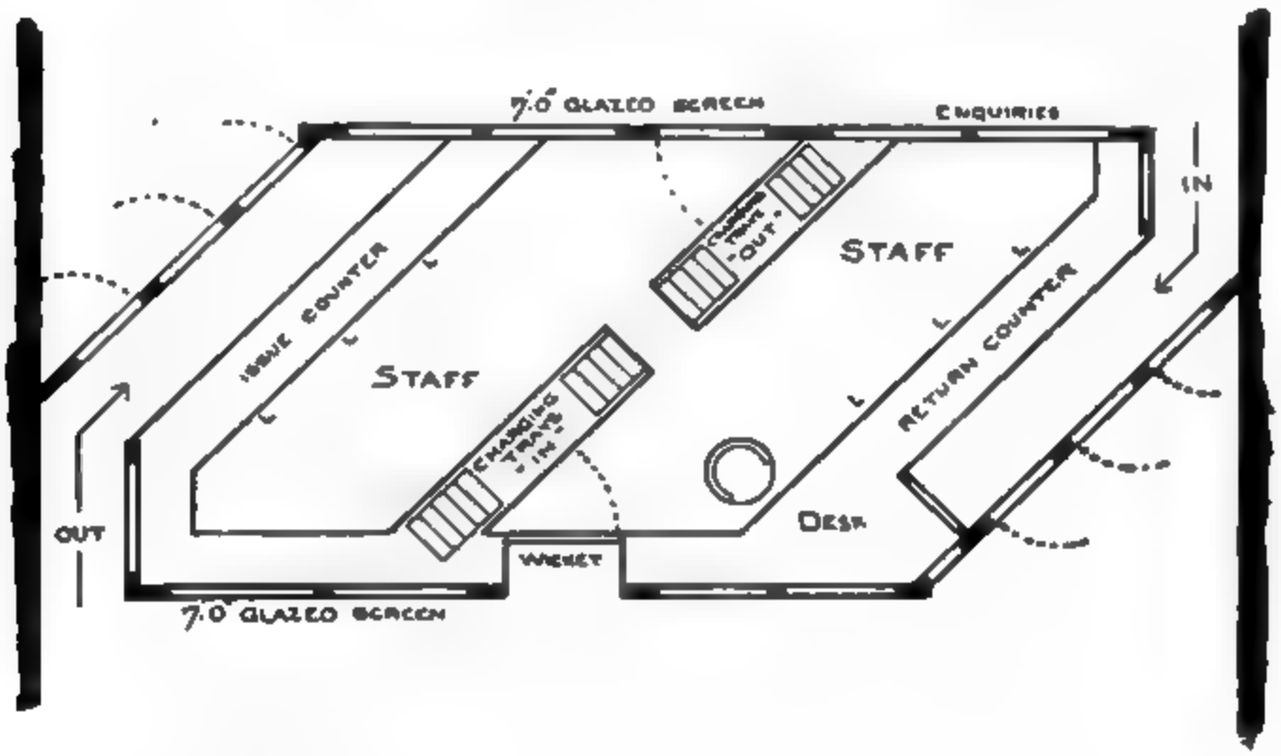


Fig. 24.—Triple Open-access Barrier (Section 129).

oak or walnut rail, about four to six inches wide, in the style of illustration (Fig. 26).

132. **Screens.**—In small libraries with a small staff it is often possible to obtain complete oversight of nearly every department by using glazed partitions or screens instead of brick internal walls. In cases where there is no roof weight to be supported, this is a very good arrangement, and is recommended for every building to which it can be applied. When such partitions divide rooms from each other, it is advisable to carry them right up to the ceiling to exclude noise. In other situations, as when dividing a room into two or more sections, the screens need not be more than eight or nine feet high.

Clear glass should be used throughout, unless in the upper panels, not only for the sake of oversight, but of light.

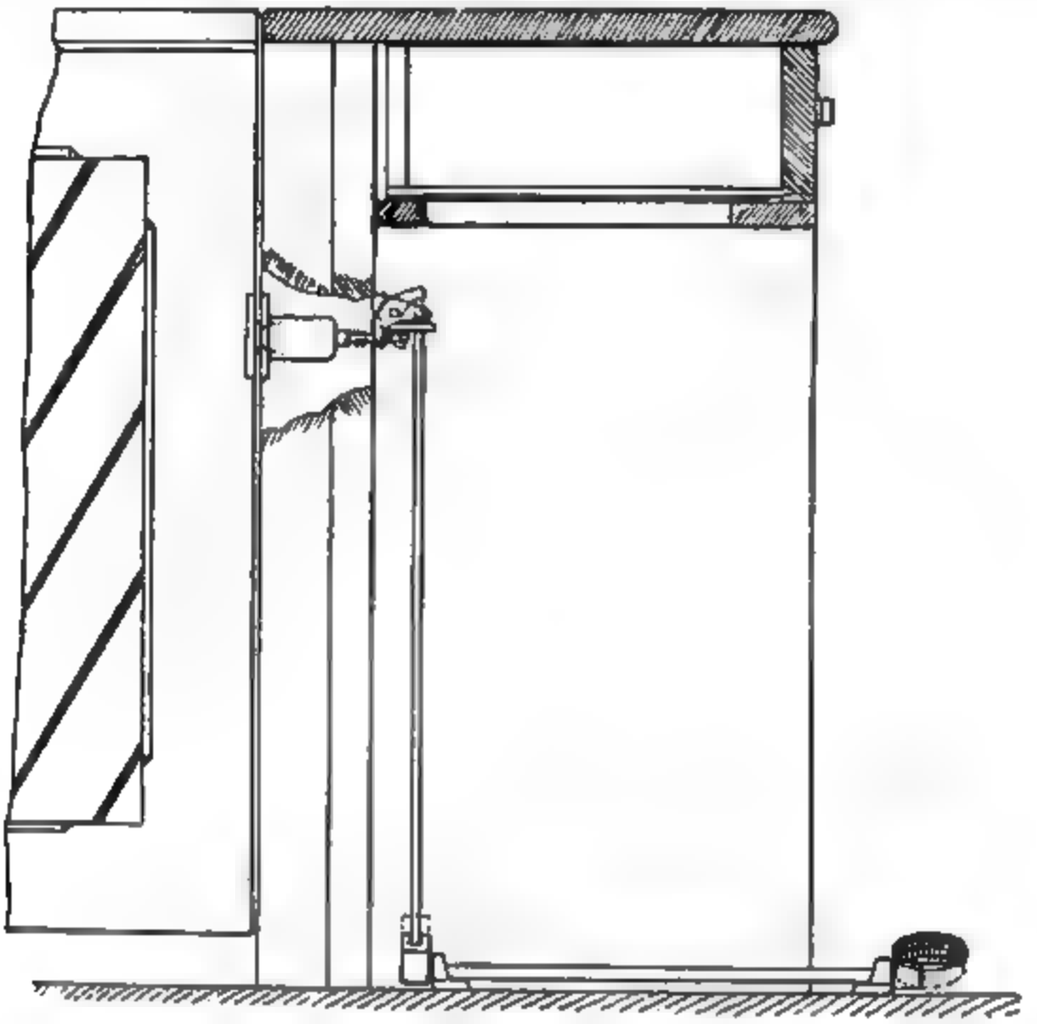


Fig. 25.—Treadle Latch for Open-access Wicket (Section 129).

133. Lifts. — Save in very large libraries with many floors, neither passenger nor ordinary lifts for carrying heavy

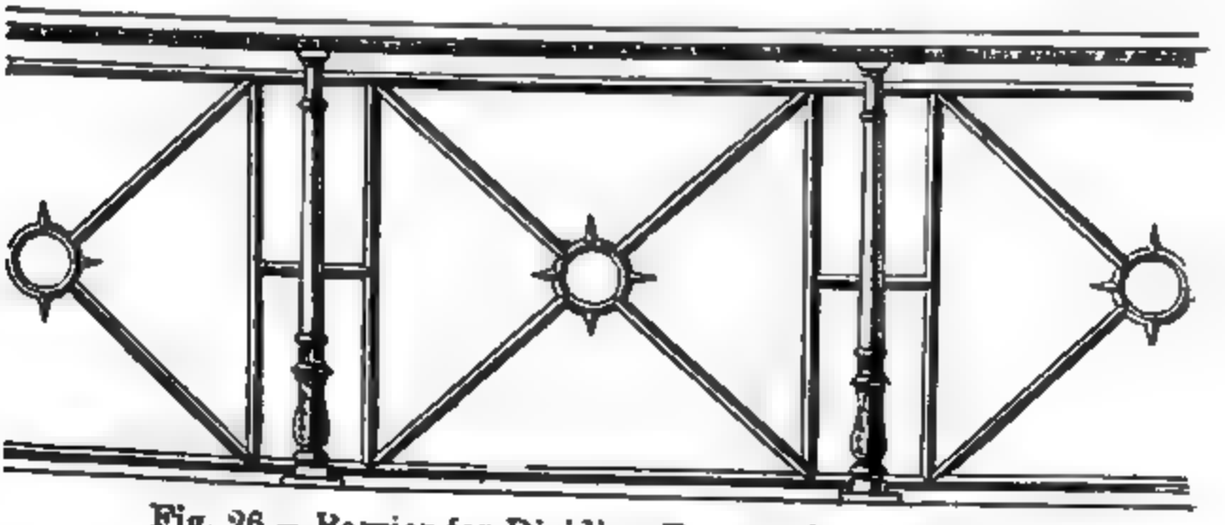


Fig. 26.—Barrier for Dividing Rooms (Section 131).

weights are necessary. In a building with two or more floors, an ordinary lift for transporting parcels of books to the extent

of perhaps two hundredweights, should be provided in a convenient place, preferably against a wall. Such lifts should have automatic brakes and simple raising and lowering mechanism; but an electric motor will be found less noisy and easier to work than any form of rope lift. In addition, it is often of greater service to have small, quick-running lifts or tubes capable of carrying one to six single books from floor to floor. In cases where lending library books are issued for reading in the reading room, this is a very convenient arrangement, and it also greatly facilitates the work of the staff by enabling messages and small articles to be rapidly transferred from place to place.

134. Speaking Tubes and Telephones.—Speaking tubes connecting every department should be provided in all new buildings, if telephones have not already been fixed. The telephone is much easier applied to an existing building, as there is less cutting about of walls required. But in new buildings speaking tubes can be provided quite easily, and they are simpler to work and less liable to get out of order than telephones. The telephone should be provided for every large public library, which ought to be connected with the municipal offices, the telephone exchange and its own branches. It is often possible for a public library to obtain a sufficient service by having a wire from the town hall switch-board to the library. The annual cost of this is only about one-fourth of the regular exchange service. For a complicated internal service of intercommunications, the telephone is much superior to speaking tubes, as the switch-board system enables the user to communicate with any department without the need of extra tubes.

135. Miscellaneous.—In some libraries accommodation for CYCLES is provided outside the buildings, which is the proper place for such machines, in view of their tendency to do damage when placed against interior walls. In buildings which front busy main streets this kind of accommodation cannot be provided unless there is a courtyard or similar space in front.

Some libraries which are infested by DOGS would be all the better of some effective means of keeping such animals outside. No doubt, if their owners were spoken to, they would agree to fasten them to hooks or rails outside the building, if proper means were provided.

136. TURNSTILES for counting purposes are fitted up in several libraries, as well as in most museums, art galleries, etc. They should be placed in situations where their noisy clacking will not prove disturbing, if they are used at all.

137. Good English CLOCKS, with conspicuous dials, should be placed in every public room of a library. Where a number are provided, it is better to specify electrically controlled or synchronized clocks, which keep uniform time and are much less troublesome than ordinary self-wound clocks. Libraries should also have a supply of small THERMOMETERS distributed and fixed throughout the rooms as a check upon the internal temperature, and it is a useful thing to provide a barometer as well.

138. REFERENCE LIST OF AUTHORITIES :—

Brown (J. D.) Furniture. *See his* "Library Appliances," p. 12.

Burgoyne (F. J.) Furniture and appliances. *See his* "Library Architecture," pp. 78-127.

Carr (H. J.) Fixtures, furniture and fittings. U. S. Educ. Rept., 1892-1893, v. 1, p. 733.

CHAPTER IX.

SHELVING AND ACCESSORIES.

139. The chief requirements of book-shelving are get-at-ability and adjustability. All authorities on library architecture are agreed that high shelves are an obstruction to quick service, and a danger to books, by placing them in a vitiated atmosphere with a comparatively high temperature. The old-fashioned wall-cases, twelve or fifteen feet high, which could only be reached by means of long ladders, are no longer recommended or installed, because of the labour they place upon the staff, their danger, and the fact that all the books on the upper shelves are not only inaccessible, but liable to a certain amount of harm. For these reasons modern libraries prefer to enlarge their floor area for the purpose of book-storage, and provide wall and standard bookcases which are within easy reach of the floor, thus placing the entire stock at the command of both staff and readers without the labour or danger of climbing up long ladders. It may be said, generally, that high wall-shelves should never be provided, unless with the provision of an iron gallery half-way up, which can be reached by means of stairs.

140. The question of adjustability is just as important as get-at-ability. In every method or appliance which is introduced for library, or, indeed, any other work, the great principle of movability or adjustability should be preferred to fixity. The power of moving or changing without altering the character or shape of anything is of enormous advantage in every operation, and a very good illustration of the application of this power is furnished by the card catalogue, with its infinite capacity for expansion in every direction. Book-shelves should be as mobile

as cards in their own way, and should be so adjustable that a new shelf can be introduced or an existing one removed at any point where such a course is possible. The only advantage which fixed wooden shelves possess is that of comparative cheapness, but this is an advantage which, in a short time, is completely swallowed up in the inconveniences which arise through the impossibility of placing books of varying sizes in strict classified order on the shelves. Besides a great sacrifice of vertical space in some places, it will be found in a rapidly growing library that the carefully gauged shelves, at eight, nine, ten, or twelve inches apart, in every tier, cannot be made to contain all the books which ought to go on these shelves in their order. The day soon comes when the eight-and-a-half or nine-and-a-half inch book arrives which must go on the eight- or nine-inch shelf, and, because there is no means of making a slight adjustment, such books must either be shelved out of their order, or placed on their fore-edges. If such shelves are arranged throughout a library at a distance of ten inches apart to provide for contingencies, they will take all sizes up to demy 8vo, but at a great sacrifice of space, especially in the fiction shelves, where most of the books average about seven and a half inches. Any attempt at varying the distances between shelves in every tier will lead to confusion in a strictly classified library. On the other hand, liberal spacing will result in the loss of a shelf in every tier, thereby reducing the total storage space by about one-eighth or one-ninth, according to the number of shelves in a tier. The balance of advantages lies with movable forms of shelving, and it is strongly recommended that no other kind be specified or ordered.

141. The following diagrams give the usual dimensions for ordinary standard and wall bookcases, and may be taken as the unit from which a library stack can be built up according to any plan of arrangement. Fig. 27 represents a double-sided standard iron bookcase, 7 feet 6 inches × 3 feet 2 inches × 15 inches, which can be joined end to end to form cases of any length, or used in halves to form cases against walls.

Exactly the same dimensions can be used with wooden presses fitted with adjustable brackets or catches. In refer-

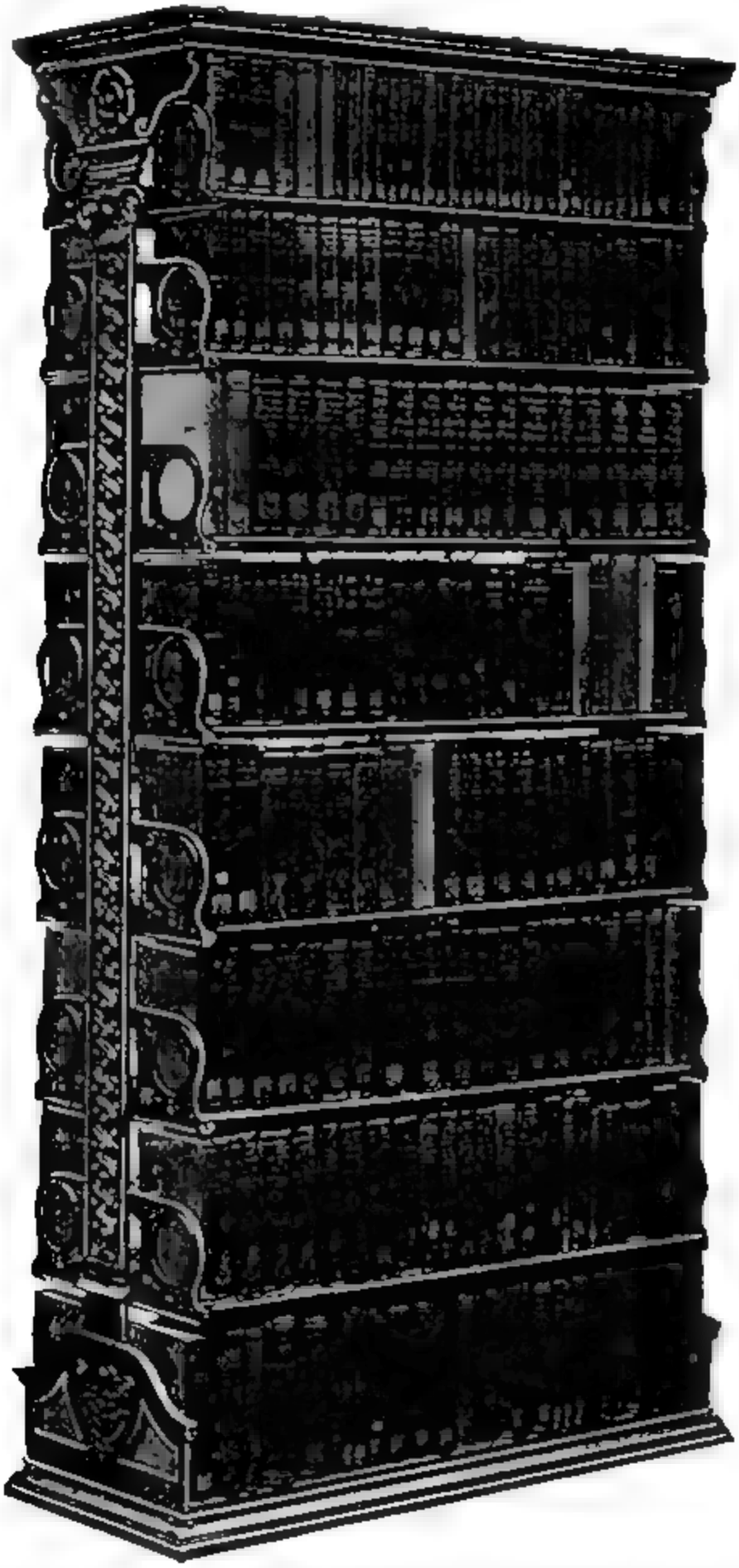


Fig. 27.—Double Bay Standard Metal Bookcase (Section 141).

ence libraries the dimensions may be slightly varied, as the average book which must be stored is rather larger than in

lending libraries. But the chief provision for folio and large quarto books should be in special cases arranged round the walls, and it is well to have presses intended for music and quartos fitted with uprights about eighteen inches apart, in order to distribute the weight of the books and facilitate their handling.

142. For standard reference cases the unit of size should be 7 feet 6 inches × 3 feet 2 inches × 18 inches. Special wall-cases should be the same height, but should have an arrangement for large books in the form of a ledged base projecting at least six inches from the front of the upper part of the case, about three feet above the floor (Fig. 28).

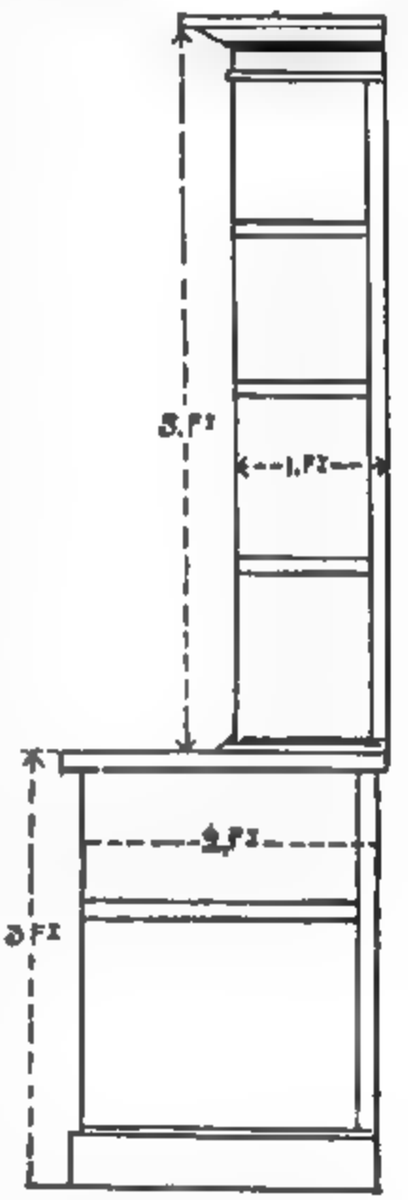


Fig. 28.—Wooden Wall Case with Ledged Base (Section 142).

143. Adjustable Shelf-Fittings.—The old-fashioned varieties of shelf adjustments for wooden bookcases, such as pegs fitting into holes drilled in the uprights, one and a half or two inches apart; wooden or metal ratchets for carrying bars or rods for supporting the shelves; and similar devices, may be dismissed as unsuitable for modern library purposes. The best-known adjustment is that known as Tonks', from the name of its patentee. It consists of metal strips, with perforations at inch intervals, let into grooves in the uprights, and designed to carry the shelves on four metal studs or catches, which engage in the slots or perforations. This method requires very careful fitting, as the grooves in the woodwork must be deep and smooth enough to admit the catches, and each metal strip must be accurately inserted so that the slots will come level not only with those adjoining, but with those on the opposite upright. The least carelessness in fitting will cause

shelves to rock and buckle, because not supported by catches all at one level. The subjoined illustration (Fig. 29) will show exactly the form of this fitting. It consists of: shelf supported on standard; perforated metal slip and stud; and groove in wooden standard.

It should be noted that this variety of shelf-fitting does not give absolute adjustability, but only a movement of about an inch up or down, as may be required. Smaller adjustments are impossible by this or any other similar system.

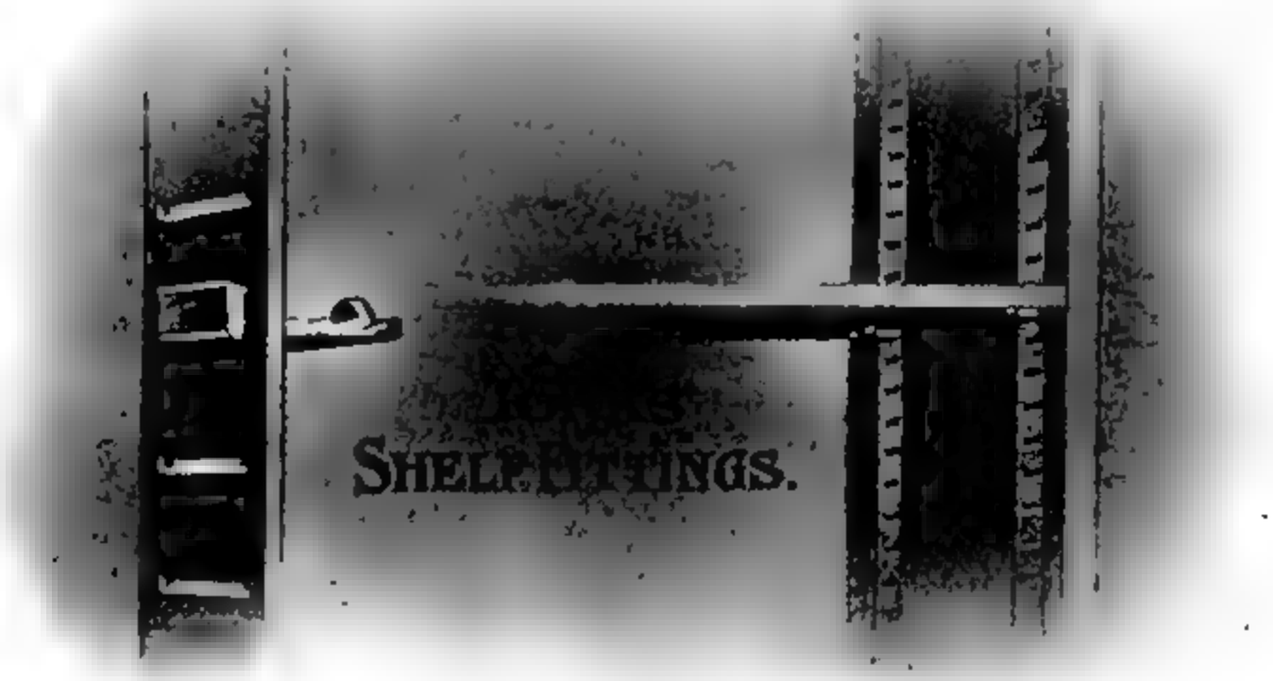


FIG. 29.—Wooden Shelf Adjustment (Section 143).

144. There are various other methods of fixed shelf adjustments for wooden bookcases, English, American and German, but none of them possess any particular advantage over Tonks' variety.

Absolute adjustability in shelf-fittings, as applied to wooden cases, has been obtained in the English method, to be seen at various libraries in England. There are also various American systems.

Both of these forms are similar in principle to the absolute

adjustments described under Section 145, but the English system was the first to be patented, and, therefore, ranks as the pioneer of this type of shelf-fitting.

145. Metal Bookcases with Absolute Shelf Adjustments.—The best and most used English variety of metal bookcase with absolute shelf adjustment is that which has been installed in the public libraries of Worcester, Shoreditch, Huddersfield, Lambeth, Perth, the Patent Office Library, London, Islington and elsewhere. It consists, as shown in Figs. 27, 30 and 31, of strong

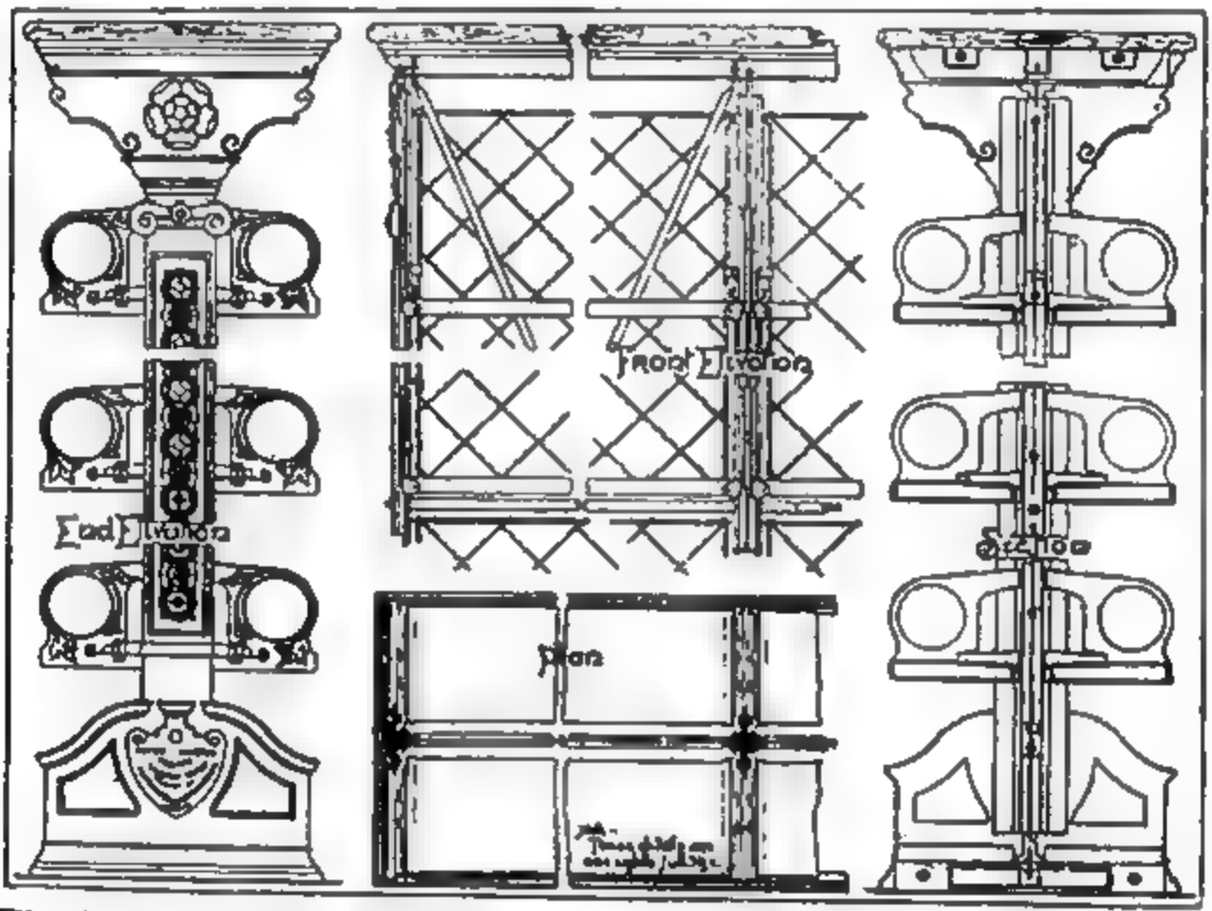


Fig. 30.—Details of Lambert's Adjustable Metal Shelving (Section 145).

steel uprights, in which are formed continuous grooves, which carry and support shelf brackets designed to grip at any point by automatic means. These brackets will slide up and down the uprights to any point, while a small controlling lever is depressed, but the moment this is released the bracket will become firmly fixed in place, and will remain there till again moved, whatever weight may be placed upon the shelf which it supports. These brackets can be pushed up without touching the controlling lever, and will always grip at the point where they are left. To push them down the controlling arm

must be depressed as already described. The shelves for this type of case may be either metal or wood, but probably good oak shelves will be found as satisfactory as any. Standard cases made in the dimensions given in Section 141 are usually divided down the middle, at the back of each set of shelves, by means of a wire-work grill. This does not obstruct oversight, light or air, yet serves to prevent books on one face of the standard from being accidentally or otherwise transferred

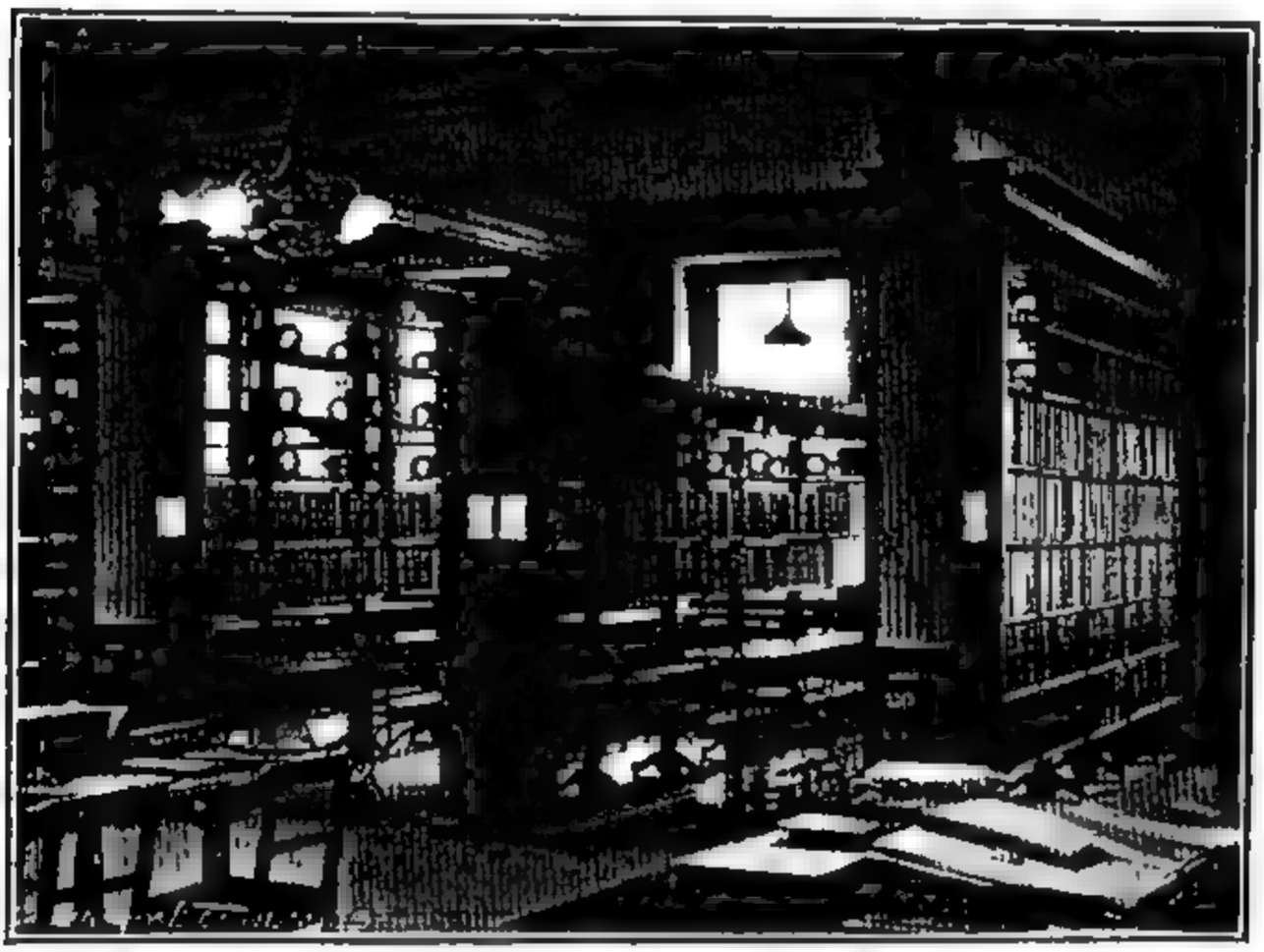


Fig. 31.—Metal Shelving, Patent Office Library, London (Section 145.)

to the opposite face. There are points of safety, convenience and adjustability about metal bookcases which make them preferable to all other forms.

146. A special form of this type of metal bookcase has been designed for book-storage in small spaces, and as applied to the India Office Library, London, and Bodleian Library, Oxford, has been found convenient and economical. The same shelf adjustment is used, but the presses instead of resting on the floor are swung from iron girders, so as to slide easily whenever

wanted. These presses are swung closely side by side and drawn out, one at a time, as required.

A somewhat similar plan for increasing the storage capacity was introduced into the British Museum many years ago, the chief difference being that the sliding presses go face to face with the existing standards, one here and there, instead of in solid rows as at the India Office. But these extreme methods of book storage do not materially affect municipal libraries, which are under no obligation to store and preserve everything which comes along.

147. It is not proposed to describe every variety of iron or metal bookcase which has been introduced, such as the Library Bureau, Smith, Lawrence, Cotgreave, etc., and it will be suffi-

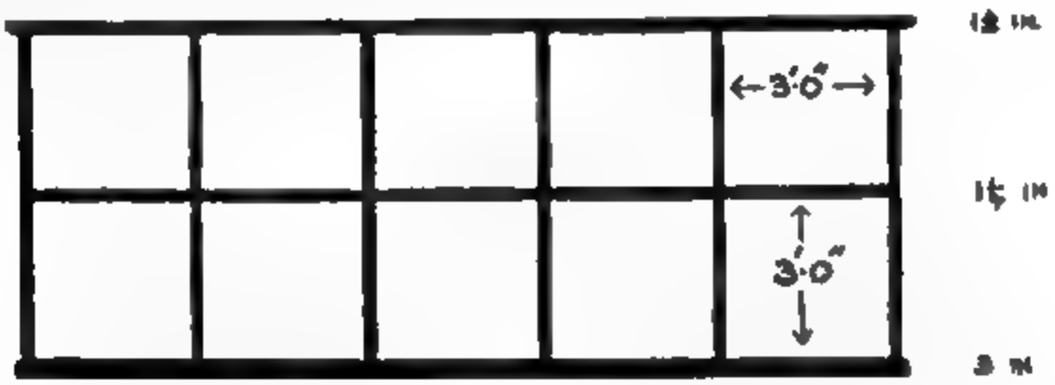


Fig. 32.—Rack for Bound Newspapers (Section 148).

cient to mention that in Britain, Germany and America there are several interesting forms used.

148. **Special Bookcases.**—In Section 142 a form of special wall-case is described which is suitable for storing folio and quarto volumes. In very large libraries it may be necessary to provide additional storage space for bound files of newspapers, extra large folios and prints. Files of newspapers can be stored in a special form of double rack as illustrated in Fig. 32. As small libraries will only bind the files of local papers, the provision for this purpose need not be a very serious matter.

149. Large folio volumes are best kept flat on sliding trays or shelves. When they are kept upright they are very apt to suffer through the heavy leaves sagging and dragging at the binding. Valuable folios should always be kept in flat positions. A suitable method of storage is to provide a large double-sided

case, with a sloping top, which can be used for consulting the books. The shelves should be arranged to slide out and in on runners, and each shelf may have a brass handle on its fore-edge to enable it to be easily pulled out. The dimensions of such a case will depend upon the number of folios to be stored and their size, but the following illustration (Fig. 33) will be found suitable for all ordinary purposes.

This case will store about 150 to 200 folio volumes, according to their thickness, which is ample space for all ordinary municipal public libraries. The shelves of this case should be covered on their upper surfaces with leather or thick cloth. A

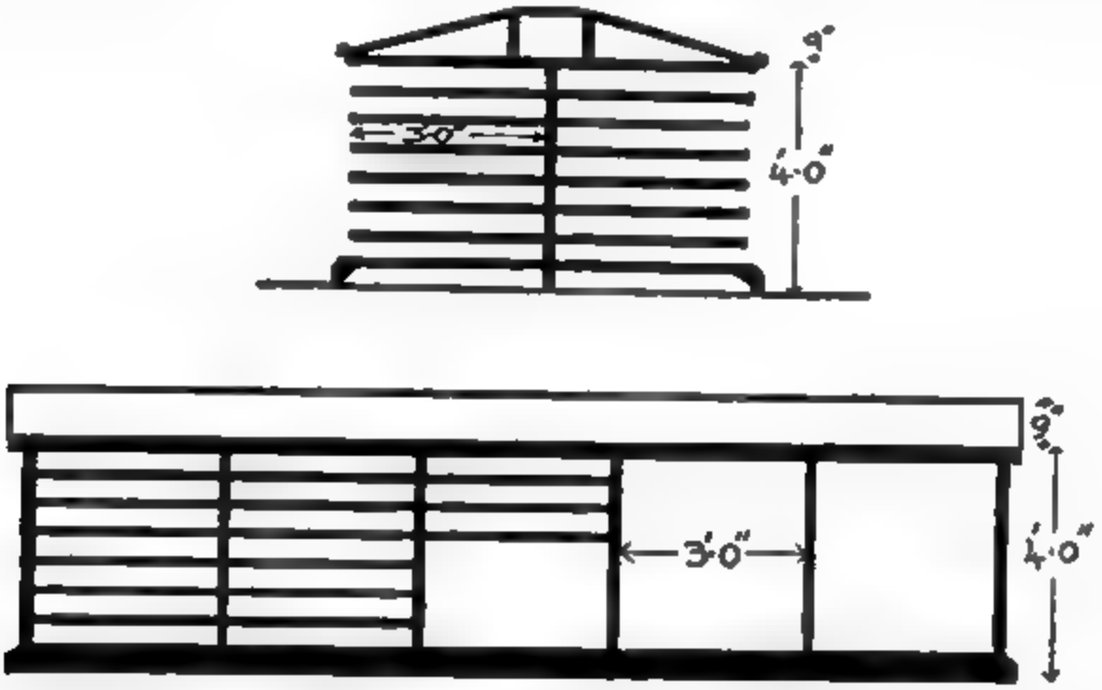


Fig. 33.—Section and Elevation of Case for Large Folio Books (Section 149).

similar style of rack can be used for storing large collections of prints, the only difference being that the prints would be kept in special boxes as described in Section 317, which would take the place of volumes.

150. In calculating the number of volumes which can be shelved in a given space, the following general rules will be found fairly accurate :—

Nine lending library books will occupy one foot run of space.

Eight reference library books will occupy one foot run of space.

Allowance must be made, in calculating from plans, for the space occupied by uprights, etc., and care must be taken to

reckon dwarf bookcases only according to their capacity. If nine inches are allowed as the average height of books, which will give eight shelves to a tier seven feet six inches high, excluding cornices, plinth or thickness of shelves, then a single-sided case of the dimensions shown in Section 142 will store 216 volumes in a lending library and about 192 in a reference library. A double-sided case will hold 432 and 384 volumes respectively.

151. Racks for Filing.—Wooden racks or iron-pipe racks may be used for a variety of purposes, such as storing unbound newspapers and periodicals, pamphlets, and all kinds of loose papers or bundles. Such racks are best made in a light, open form, so as to reduce the collection of dust to a minimum, while admitting air and light freely.

152. Galleries.—Galleries of iron are sometimes added to reference libraries and in other departments to provide a means of reaching high wall-shelves, and also to give additional accommodation for storage. They are a feature of the large stack rooms of American libraries, wherein the books are all massed together, gallery above gallery, and tier above tier. Unless there is some very strong reason, architectural or otherwise, galleries should be avoided in every public library where rapid service of readers is necessary. Save for storing dead stock, galleries are not recommended in any situation, unless the pressure for book space is very great. When galleries must be provided, care should be taken to provide adequate approaches. If a straight staircase is out of the question, a circular iron one should be provided, wide enough to enable an assistant to go up or down comfortably with an armful of books. In some libraries the circular iron staircases are more like glorified cork-screws than proper means of getting up and down from a gallery or floor. It is much better to have stairways in a single flight, which will allow of two persons passing each other, and for this purpose they ought to be at least three feet wide.

153. Ladders and Steps.—In libraries with bookcases of the uniform height of seven feet six inches, long ladders will be unnecessary, but in cases where they must be used, step ladders

are preferable to rung ones. A light form of step ladder which is used in many public libraries and shops is illustrated below

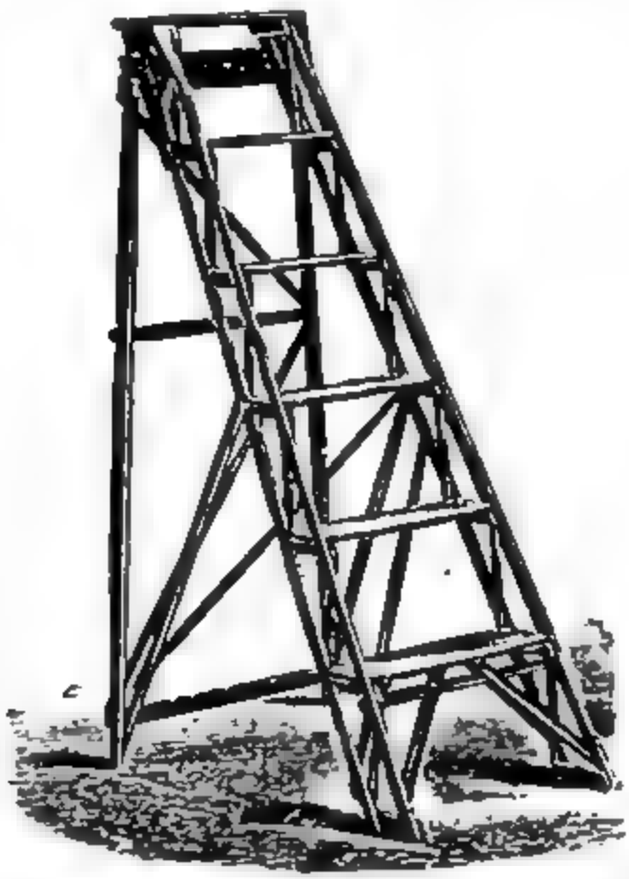


Fig. 34.—Lattice-work Steps (Section 153).

Fig. 35.—Short Steps for Low Shelves (Section 153).

(Fig. 34). For all practical purposes this ladder will be found ample.

Short steps for enabling the upper shelves of seven foot six inch cases to be easily scanned are made in various forms, some

being folding and others fixed. The variety as illustrated (Fig. 35) will be found useful.

154. In some open-access libraries it has been found advisable, in cases where the top shelves are out of reach, to

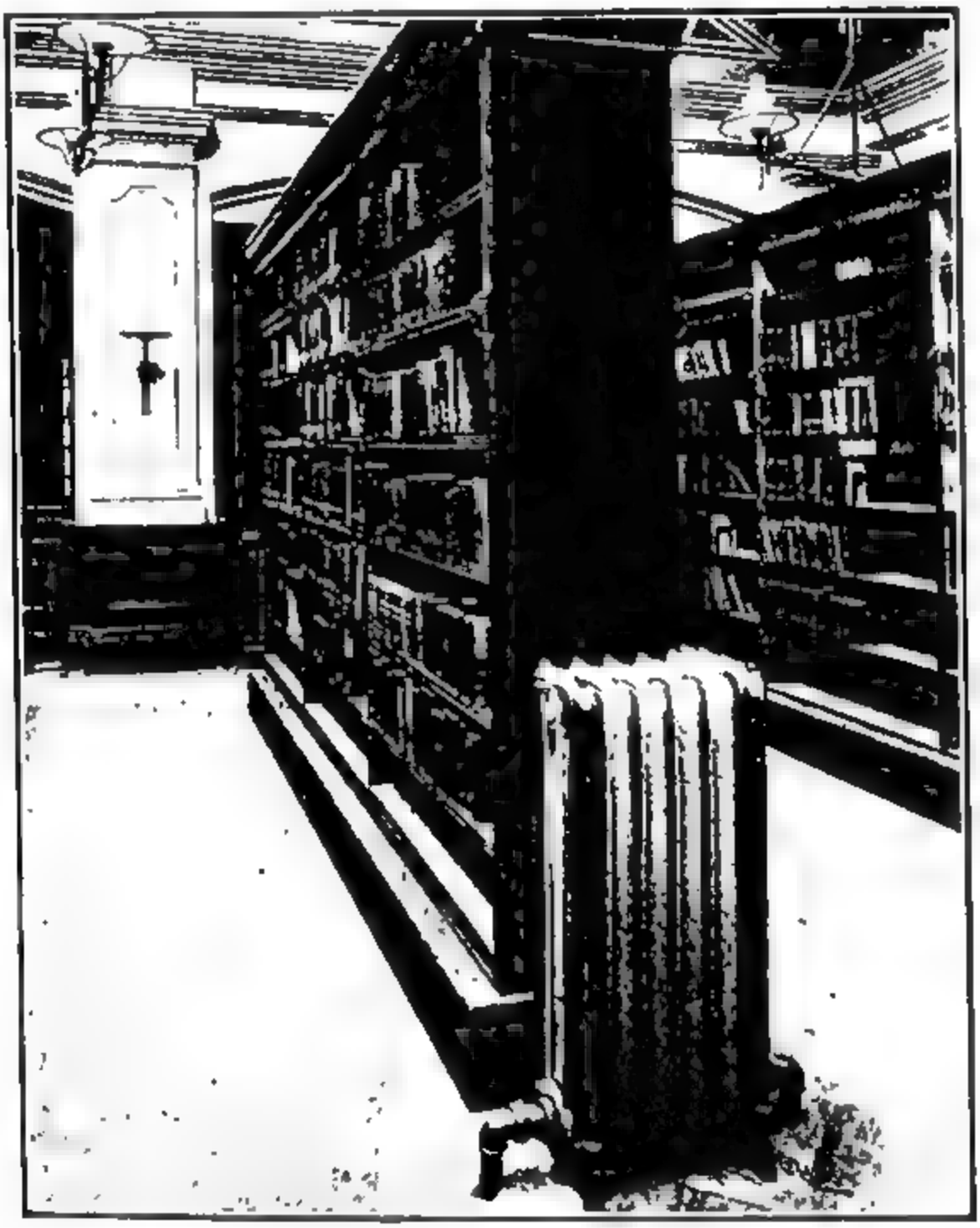


Fig. 36.—Continuous Wooden Step and Handles. Hornsey Central Library (Section 154).

provide a continuous fixed step of wood or iron at the base of each bookcase, to enable readers to reach the upper shelves without using movable steps of the sort figured above. A strong, wide iron rail projecting about four inches or six inches from the case, about nine inches or twelve inches above the

ground, has been found useful, especially when associated with a handle fastened to the upright at a convenient height above. The illustration (Fig. 36) will give an idea of such a continuous step and handle applied in wood.

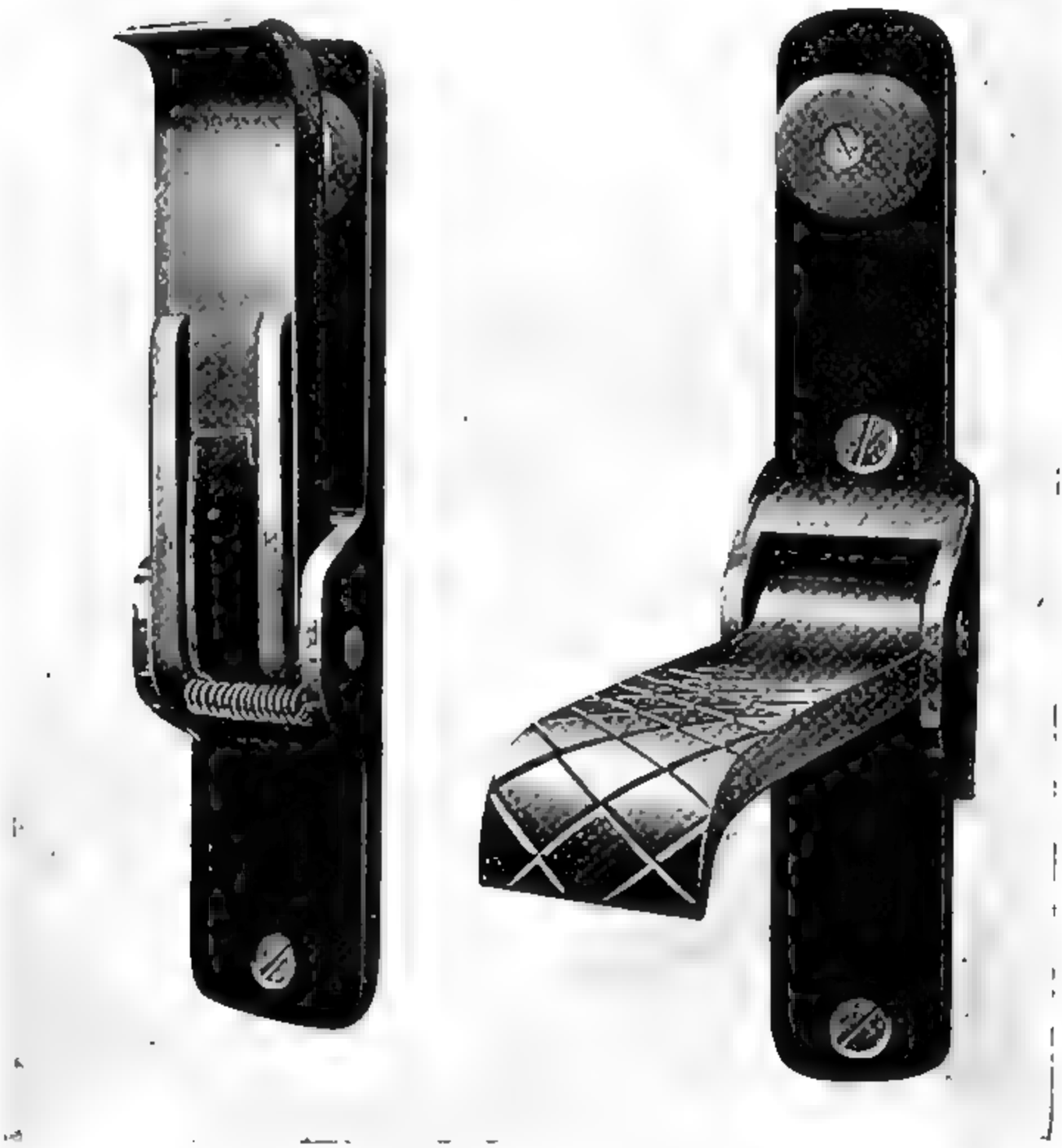


FIG. 37.—Spring Step for Bookcases (Section 155).

155. Detached steps secured to the uprights of bookcases, combined with handles, are very often used for staff purposes in place of the ordinary movable wooden steps or ladders.

There is one form with an automatic adjustment which enables the step to spring up flat against the upright out of the way when not wanted, as figured in illustration (Fig. 37). It is not necessary to fit this into the uprights, and to cut away the woodwork in order to let it into its place. There is still another variety, used at Hull, Kilmarnock, etc., which is always in

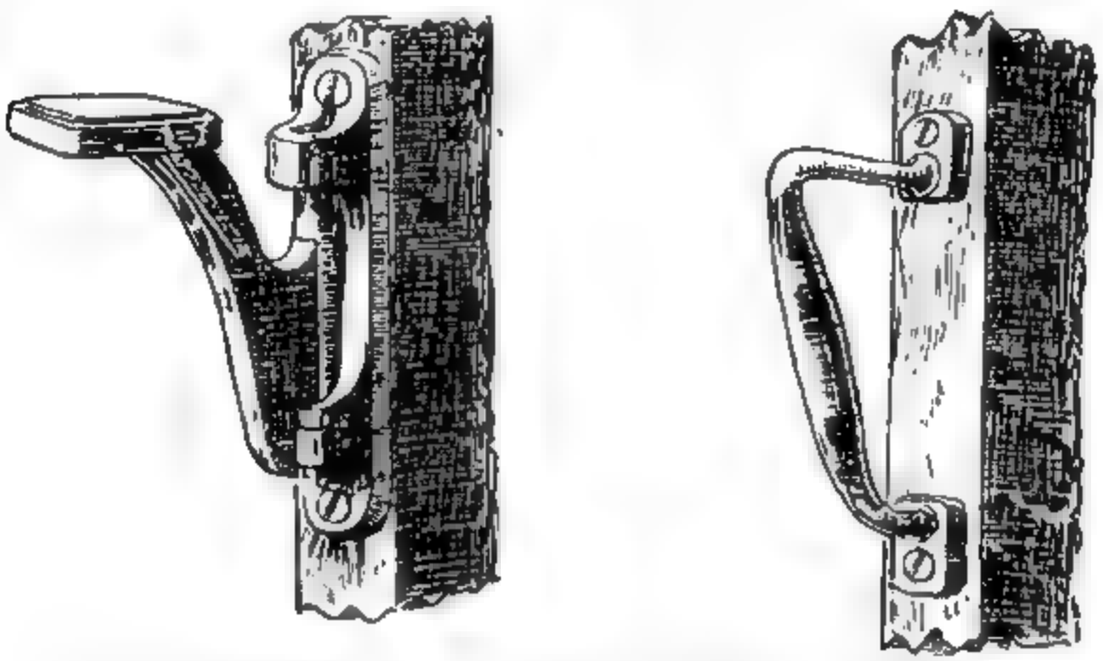


Fig. 38.—Swinging Step and Improved Handle (Section 155).

position for use, but which also possesses an automatic adjustment enabling it to be brushed aside harmlessly by any one passing, and to return to its "ready" position at once. This form can be attached to any ordinary wooden upright by means of screws, without cutting away or fitting. The handle supplied with this has a superior shape and grip (Fig. 38).

CHAPTER X.

FURNITURE.

156. The effect of shabby fittings and furniture on the minds of visitors is not such as will tend to the promotion of discipline, nor will it instil respect for the library into the minds of rate-payers and readers. A fine building, appropriately fitted up, will not only impress the average visitor, but it will cause the citizens to take pride in the library as a town's institution. A

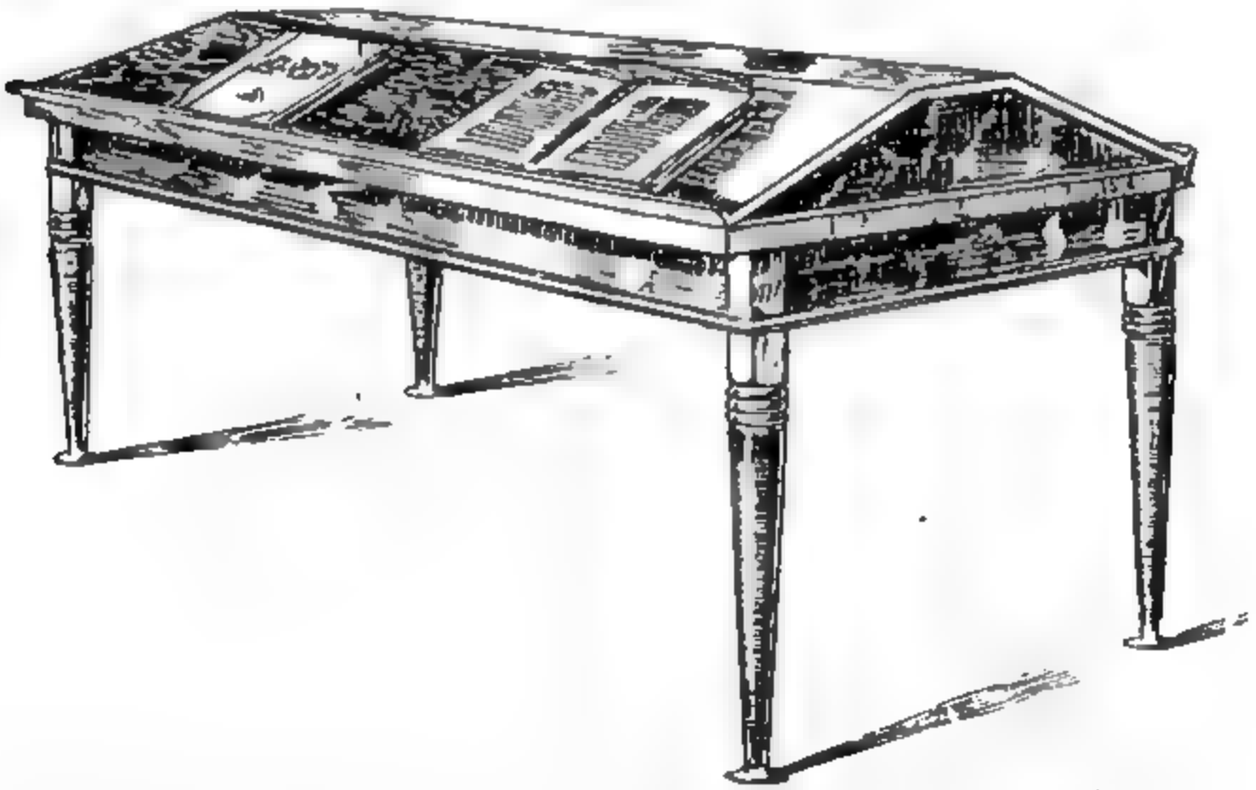


Fig. 39.—Two-sided Desk Topped Table (Section 157).

fine building shabbily fitted up inside will probably have quite a different effect. While a very strong distinction is to be drawn between luxury and propriety in such matters, a much better purpose will be served by procuring good and substantial fittings and furniture, than by wasting on extravagant exteriors most of the money available for building.

157. Reading Tables.—For general reading rooms the tables should not be too long, nor, if readers are to sit on both sides, too narrow. A table to accommodate, say, eight persons, four on each side, should be 8 feet long × 3 feet wide × 32 inches high. The rails of reading-room tables should not be

Fig. 40.—British Museum Reading Table with Desk and Rack (Section 158).

made so deep as to interfere with the comfort of persons using them, and cross rails connecting the table legs near the floor level should never be used, as these only serve as foot-rests. A certain number of tables should be made with desk or sloping tops, as shown in illustration (Fig. 39). Oak, walnut or other hard woods should be used for library furniture. Pitch pine

is not recommended, as it invariably splits as the resin dries out.

158. In reference libraries, especially in those designed for students with open access to the shelves, quite a liberal space should be allowed. It has not hitherto been the practice, save in large libraries like the British Museum, to give reference

Fig. 41.—Reference Room Table (Section 158).

readers as much table room as is desirable, nor to give students the amount of isolation which they require. The general policy has been to seat readers at long tables and separate them from their opposite neighbours by means of a screen, as is done at the British Museum, and in libraries like the Cornell University, Ithaca, New York. This method, which is depicted in Fig.

40, gives a certain amount of seclusion, but it does not provide a sufficiency of room for books and materials. Then, of course, no municipal library can hope to compete with the British Museum in the provision of expensive furniture. To ensure that each student reader will obtain a liberal share

Fig. 42.—Periodical Rack on Elevated Platform (Section 159).

of room, combined with comfort and isolation, a system of separate tables in the form illustrated (Fig. 41) is strongly recommended, or some way which will secure the same accommodation. The plan of making the table the unit of space instead of the readers will automatically solve the problem of how much room to give each reader.

The table illustrated (Fig 41) gives the following accommodation :—

Six square feet of free table-top with a sunk ink-well.

A back board six inches or nine inches high to prevent overlooking by neighbours, and provide space for ruler and pen racks, shelves, clips, etc.

A sloping writing desk can be added if required.

Shelves under the table for holding extra books, materials or an overcoat.

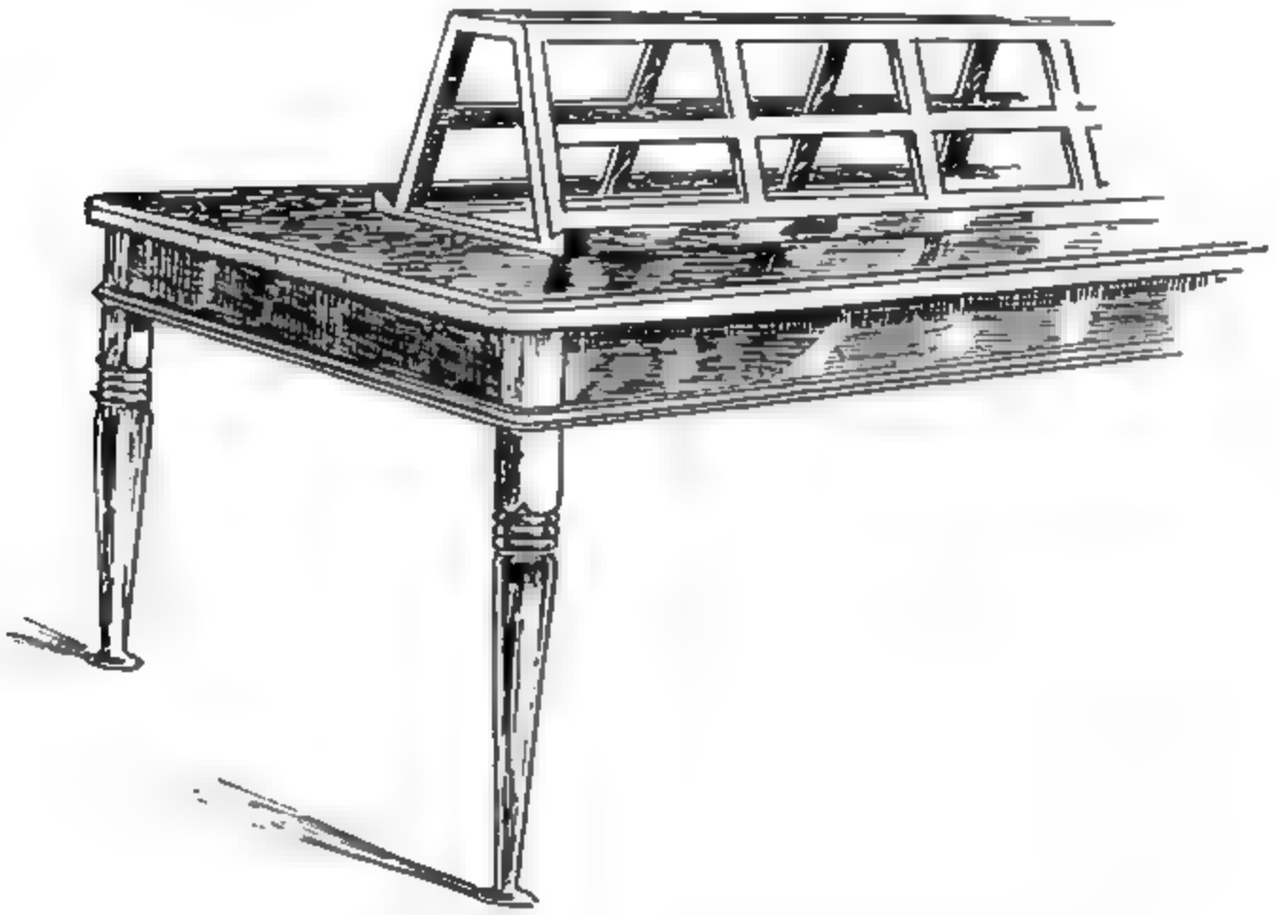


Fig. 43.—Periodical Rack on Table Top (Section 160).

An extension slide to pull out and form a book-rest or supplementary table for papers.

In addition, if space permits, an umbrella holder can be fitted to the left-hand support of the table, so that each reader will be isolated and self-contained.

159. Periodicals, Tables and Racks.—The question of the methods of displaying periodicals and magazines is discussed in Chapter XXVI., and it is not necessary to consider the matter of policy here. Various kinds of tables have been designed for displaying magazines in covers in a fixed place,

and for simply enabling them to be easily read in the ordinary way. Where periodicals are kept in racks, tables in the forms described in Section 157 will be found sufficient. In cases where the tables have to perform the combined function of racks and tables other arrangements are necessary. There are many forms of rack-table, but only three need be described. The first, which is used in several large libraries, provides a large elevated rack above the table-top, on which the periodicals are placed, so

FIG. 44.—Reading Table with Partition for Titles (Section 161).

as to free as much as possible of the table surface for readers. This is illustrated (Fig. 42).

In this form of table-rack the periodicals are not fastened to their places, and, owing to the varied sizes of the periodicals in an elevated position, they give a somewhat untidy appearance to a room.

160. A less conspicuous form, and one equally effective, dispenses with the elevated platform, and the rack simply rests

upon the table-top as illustrated (Fig. 43). If necessary, the periodicals can be fastened to the rack by means of cords or chains encased in rubber or leathern thongs, and the contents of each table can be displayed upon an adjustable titles list in the form described in Section 447, fastened to the ends of the rack.

161. A remarkably effective form of periodical table, which

Fig. 45.—Periodical Rack with Magazines Resting on Narrow Shelf (Section 162).

has a separate place and title for each, is used in the Islington Public Libraries and is shown in Fig. 44.

This makes a more effective division between readers seated on opposite sides of the table, and tends to prevent conversation and the interchange of periodicals. The periodicals can be fixed by means of chains or cords if thought necessary. At Wolverhampton, Hammersmith, Croydon and other places this plan of "tethering" magazines is adopted.

162. Periodical racks are made in a large variety of forms, and the following illustrations are typical of most of the devices used (Figs. 45 and 46). Another kind often seen is the "Cot-greave".

A smaller rack for railway time-tables is illustrated on p. 136 (Fig. 47).

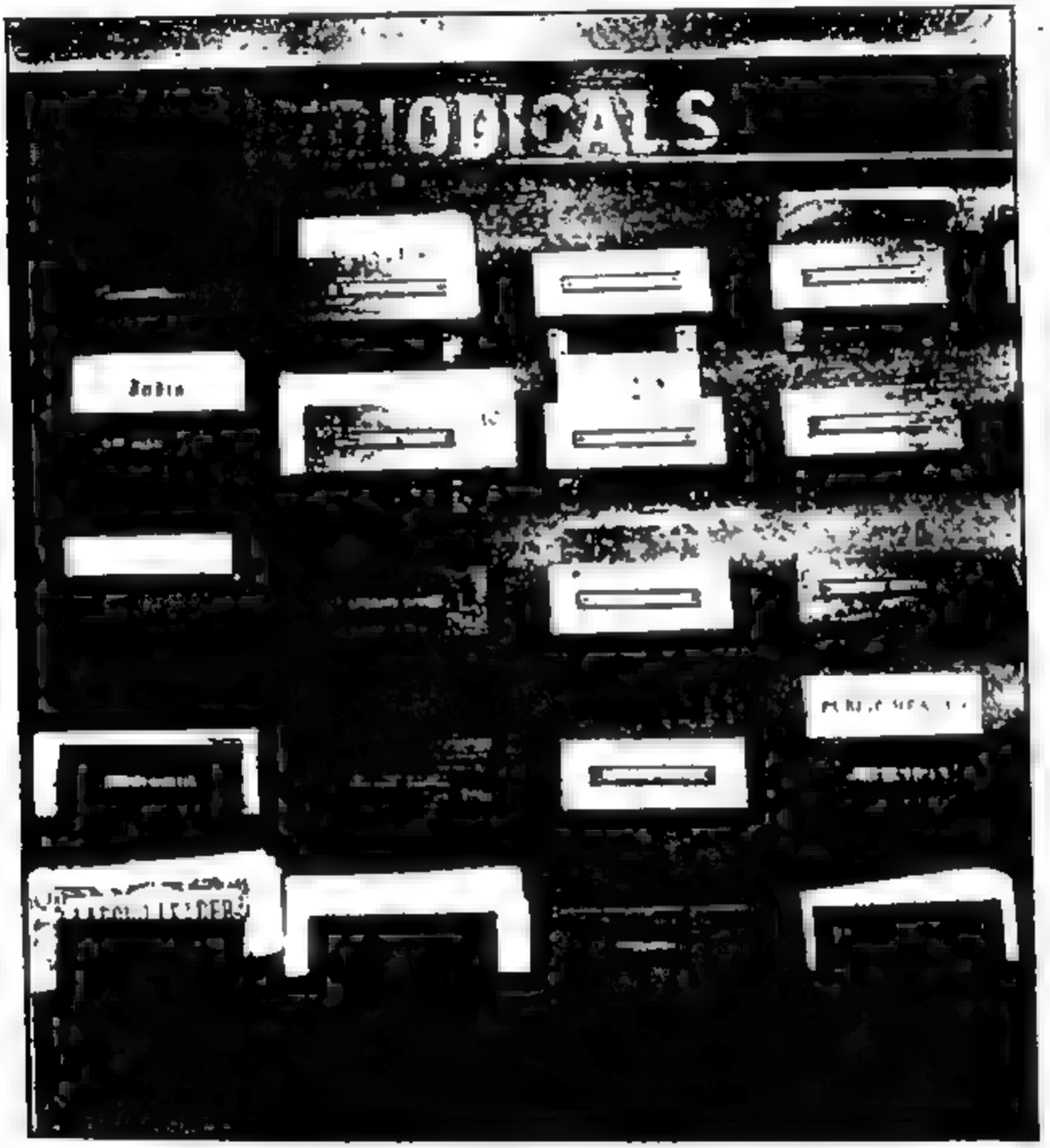


Fig. 46.—Rack for Odd or Occasional Periodicals, Finsbury Public Library (Section 162).

163. Reading Easels.—In connexion with these special tables, book stands or easels for keeping a number of books open at once will be found useful. It very often happens that a student desires to compare his authorities, and an easy means

of keeping several books open at a given place is necessary. The book easels shown below are the best forms yet devised. Fig. 48, which is made entirely of metal, has the advantage of leaving the table surface practically free and unobstructed, while the automatic means provided for keeping books open at any place, irrespective of the number of leaves, is of great utility.

Fig. 49, constructed of wood, is also a light useful article,

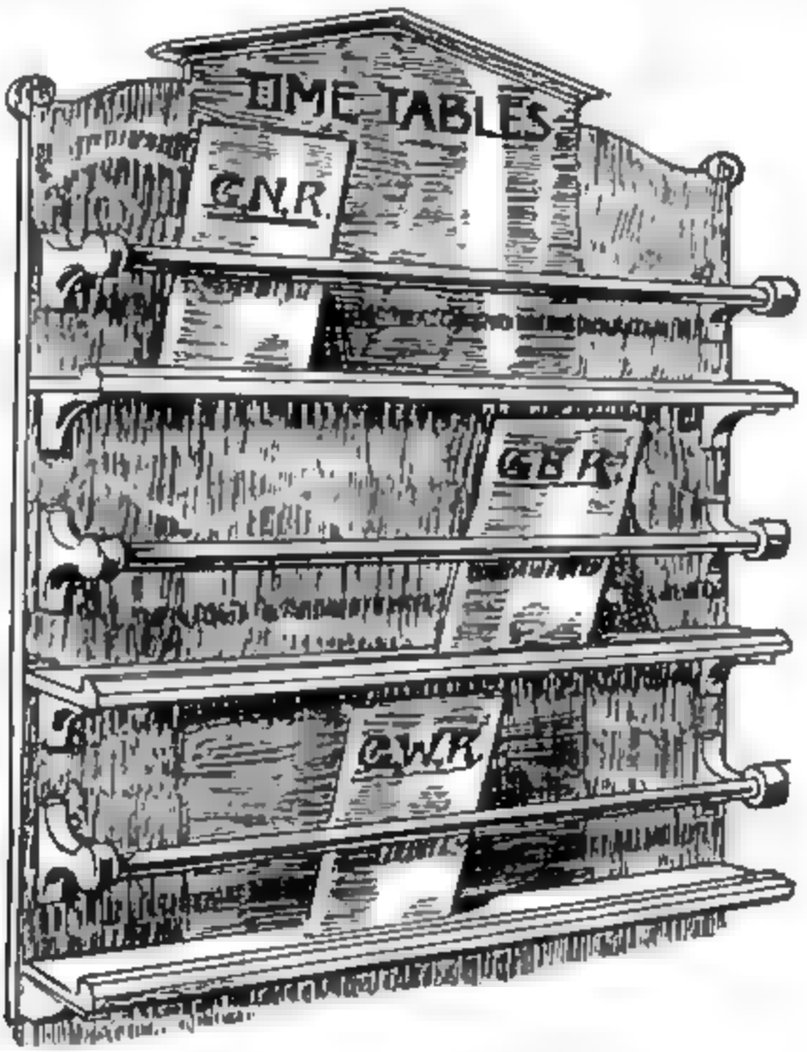


Fig. 47.—Railway Time-table Rack (Section 162).

but as it rests the book close to the table surface more obstruction is caused, while the leaf-holders are not automatically adjusting.

There are various other forms of wooden reading easels, but they are light articles designed to fold up, and will not carry large reference books with any great degree of security.

164. Chairs.—There is such an immense variety of library chairs that the chief difficulty becomes that of selection. A strong chair with a saddle seat fixed to a special rail instead of

direct to the legs is best, and in all ordinary situations arm chairs are preferable, as they give an automatic spacing of elbow room

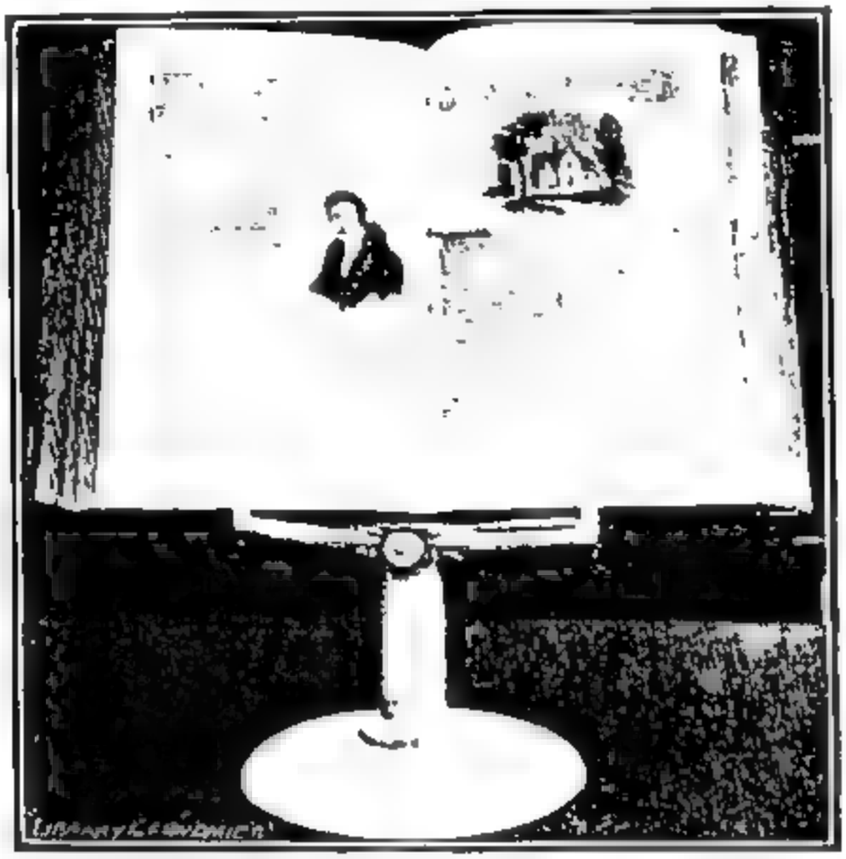


Fig. 48.—Metal Reading Easel (Section 164).

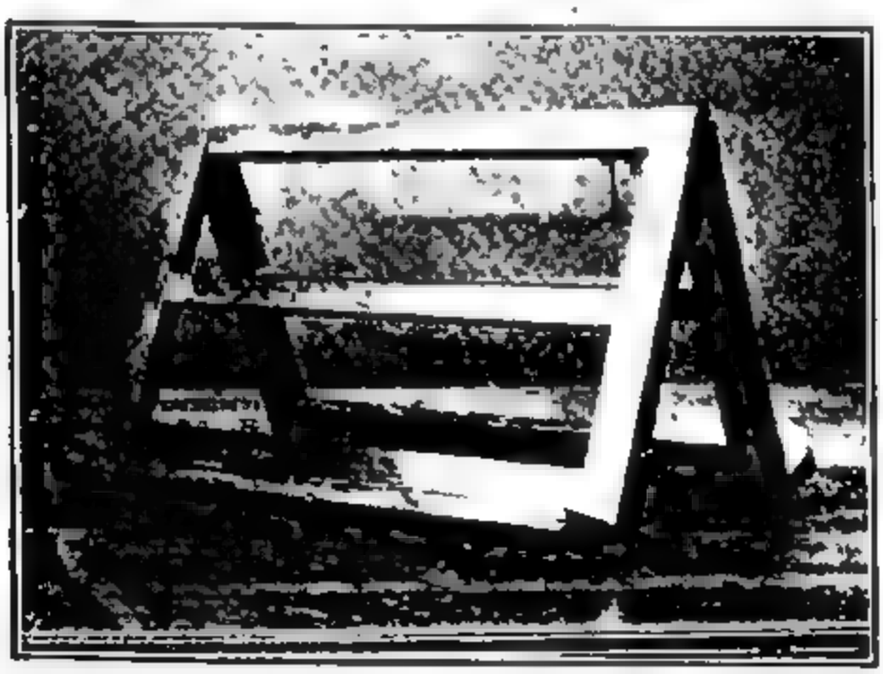


Fig. 49.—Wooden Reading Easel (Section 163).

which renders calculation unnecessary. It is wise, however, to avoid a very wide arm chair, and to use small chairs only if space is limited to 2 feet per reader.

165. Where the space between tables is very restricted the chairs should be fastened to the floor, so that there can be no blocking of gangways. One plan is that adopted at the Mitchell Library, Glasgow, and North Library, Fulham, of having revolving arm-chairs mounted on pedestals secured to the floor. These have the one great disadvantage of being non-adjustable. Readers cannot pull them a little forward or push them back, and thus such fixed chairs have the defect of all fixed things—they cannot be moved to suit varying conditions.

Fig. 50.—Chair with Anchorage Attachment (Section 165).

A better form for a crowded situation is a small strong chair of good design anchored to the floor by means of a stout cord (Fig. 50). Each chair has a stout staple screwed under the seat in the centre, and a similar staple is screwed into the floor at a suitable distance from the table front, and corresponding in situation with the staple in the chair seat when placed in position. Lengths of stout window cord are then cut and provided with swivel hooks at either end, which are fastened to the staples on the floor and on the seat, allowing a sufficient length of cord to admit of a fair amount of play and movement when anchored.

On granolithic or other cement or concrete floors, fixed chairs cannot be used readily.

This kind of anchorage allows of a chair being moved backwards, forwards or sideways, and readers can get to and from their seats without trouble. Arm chairs are not recommended for this style of fastening.

All kinds of chairs should be shod with rubber or leather pads to deaden the noise of movement on the floor. There are

Fig. 51.—Chair with Hat Rail and Umbrella Holder (Section 166).

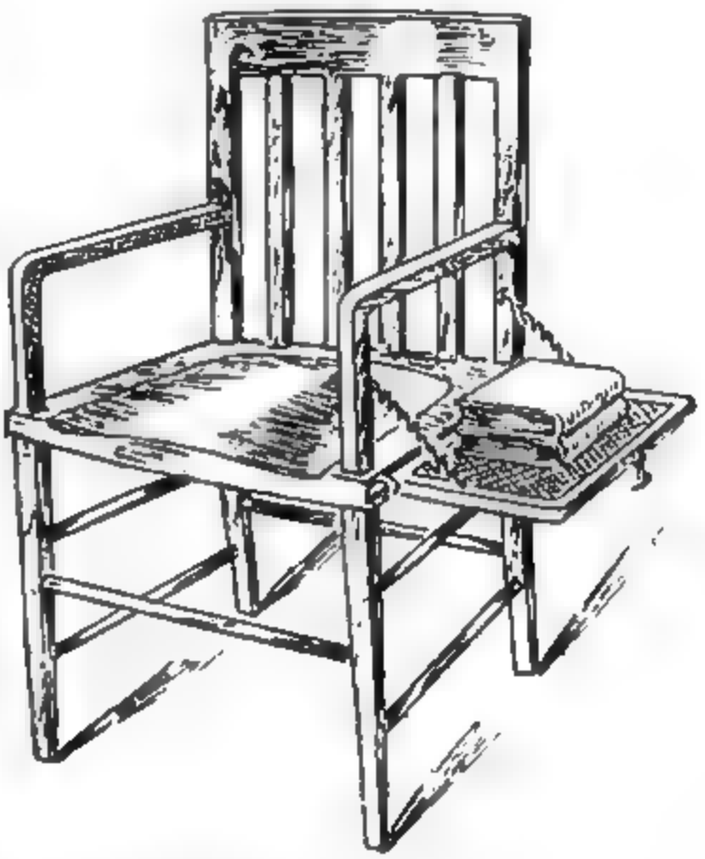


Fig. 52.—Chair with Folding Tray or Shelf (Section 166).

several varieties of such pads to be obtained from furnishing firms.

166. Hat rails of metal or wood are sometimes provided under all chairs; a very necessary provision in wet weather. The continental custom of uncovering the head when entering public buildings is not yet very common in the United Kingdom, but readers should certainly be encouraged to do so by having the means of bestowing their headgear placed easily at hand. General hat, coat and umbrella stands or racks are not popular in public libraries, and need not, as a rule, be provided. But

some kind of hat and umbrella holders should certainly be provided in connexion with the chairs. A very good combination arm chair is shown in the accompanying illustration (Fig. 51). This provides hat and umbrella accommodation, and may also have attached to the left, or both arms, a folding wire-work drop holder, in which to place completed papers, light books or other articles not wanted to litter the table-top (Fig. 52). Of course, such chairs with these additional accessories could only be used in situations where there was plenty of room. In many cases umbrella rails are attached to every table, and this is usually the best plan.

167. Every library should buy more chairs than are required. This will enable the chairs to be removed for cleaning purposes in batches of a dozen or more, their places being taken by the spare ones. This will prevent the seating accommodation from being reduced during any cleaning operations.

168. **Desks.**—For staff purposes ordinary school desks will be found ample. These are provided with side flaps and a locking compartment. A Canadian form with shelves and a lock-up desk flap, with pigeon holes, suitable for going against a wall, is a useful type of desk for assistants doing a special class of work, as the desk flap can be locked back out of the way, and so protect the papers or work.

169. For large libraries, where an elevated superintendent's desk is necessary, the combined desk and drawer cabinet used in the Mitchell Library, Glasgow, has many advantages.

DIVISION V.

BOOK SELECTION AND ACCESSION.

CHAPTER XI.

BOOK SELECTION.

170. General Principles.—Although a great number of articles and papers have been written upon the subject of book selection, there still seems room for some remarks upon the general question from a standpoint somewhat different from the ordinary. Most of the articles which have come under notice deal with the mere routine of book selection—how to systematize the ordering of books; the work connected with preparing them for public use; the bibliographical side; the question of duplicating popular books; and other more or less mechanical aspects of the matter. The philosophy of book selection and questions connected with the policy of building up libraries have rarely been considered.

171. The first point which occurs is the connexion between a library's income and its book-purchasing power. As, by law established, most British library incomes are strictly limited, it follows that a similar limitation must govern the supply of books, and that only a *selection* of new books can be procured; old and out-of-print books taking their chance. The very largest rate-supported libraries are bound by this limitation to buy only a selection from the immense mass of books annually published, and, even if such purchases amount to several thousands of volumes, they only represent a *selection*. The smaller libraries must of necessity make a selection within a

selection, and it follows that, in all cases of libraries supported by very small incomes or burdened by heavy charges for the repayment of loans or other purposes, the selection must be very carefully made if it is to be thoroughly representative of all that is best in ancient and modern literature. Another factor which enters into the matter need only be mentioned in order to be dismissed: that is the obvious unsuitability of a very large proportion of the books annually published because of their form (pamphlets and tracts), subject-matter (school-books, bibles, etc.), or special nature (local lists, reissues, directories, etc.).

172. The fund available in most public libraries for the purchase of books can be made the basis for a rough calculation showing at what rate libraries of different sizes should grow. By reference to the tables at Sections 39-40 it will be found that the sum which can be annually expended on books is limited in libraries of all sizes, and that the annual additions must of necessity follow the same limitation. By referring to the Factors given in the Appendix and comparing them with the sums for books allotted in the above tables, a fair idea will be obtained of the annual accessions of all kinds which libraries of different incomes can afford to purchase.

173. The annual production of new publications in the United Kingdom may be taken at about 7,500 volumes, including everything, and the number of new books in this total may be averaged at about 5,800 volumes. (*See* Appendix.) It will thus be seen that the British municipal libraries must be *selectors* rather than *collectors* of books, because the income of no one of them is equal to buying more than a small proportion of the 5,800 new books published annually in Britain alone. There cannot be the slightest doubt that most English public libraries, because of their accumulations of old, useless and effete books, are like huge gardens choked with weeds. The efficiency of many a library is clogged by the necessity for storing and caring for useless lumber, in the shape of books which are of no value or interest to any one. Their presence

in a modern library is a serious hindrance to effective use and administration, because they occupy the space urgently wanted for more useful modern books; they add enormously to the cost of cataloguing and charging; and in many other ways they use up the resources of the library without in any degree adding to its public utility.

174. It may be taken as a somewhat strong statement, that there are not more than 50,000 books, excluding duplicates of popular works and those in more than one volume, worthy of preservation in any public municipal library. The truth is that, of real, living works of literary and human interest, there are perhaps not more than 20,000 in the English language, but the larger figure is preferred in order to fully cover the world's literary output. Let any one who doubts this try and compile a list of even 5,000 books of permanent literary or other interest, in order to find what a difficult task it is. No doubt the difficulty of selection is the main reason why public libraries are allowed to grow up in a haphazard way, because it is a work which demands not only persevering industry, but an encyclopædic knowledge of literature and the contents of books. Nevertheless, this difficulty of selection, and the limitation of the field of selection, are powerful reasons why municipal libraries should completely abandon the museum or storage ideal, and go boldly for making the workshop or practical utility ideal the one most worthy of realization. In Chapter VI. it has already been pointed out to what extent British libraries of all kinds have fostered the mania for indiscriminate collecting, often at the expense of efficiency, while the workshop plan of library has been comparatively neglected. Even with unlimited resources, the wisdom of converting municipal libraries into huge rubbish heaps of the twaddle and exploded theories of the ages may be doubted; especially when many special libraries are doing the work. Indeed, specialization must be the watchword of the future, owing to the enormous literary activity of recent times, and the branch of specialization which public libraries must adopt is careful *selection* of books and equally careful

rejection of all which have outlived their day and purpose, or become "dull, stale and unprofitable". Public library buildings should be erected, not on the principle of storing as many books as can possibly be collected in fifty years' time, but of restricting the book accommodation to the reasonable limits which careful selection and cautious discarding will fix, and increasing the space available for readers, and giving them only the very best literature, imaginative or instructive, that the world has to offer.

175. It is a hazardous undertaking to lay down any particular rules for the formation of a British municipal library, and especially to state what proportions each class of literature should assume. Equally futile is it to take any figure as the average price which each volume in a library should cost. Although 3s. 4d. has been adopted as an average price, this must only be regarded as a mere basis for a calculation which simply aims at being a suggestion Practically every public library differs in its needs according to its income and the special industries and character of the people in the town where it is situated.

176. Attempts have been made at various times by different authorities to lay down the proportions of every class of literature which should be represented in public libraries, and some of these are given in the Appendix of Factors. Basing on these calculations, the following figures are given for what they are worth, and not by any means as a hard and fast guide to be followed:—

PERCENTAGES OF CLASSES OF LITERATURE REPRESENTED IN PUBLIC LIBRARIES, ETC.

Class A-I	Science and Art . .	27	per cent. of total stock.
,, J, K	Religion . . .	6	,, ,,
,, L	Social Science . .	8	,, ,,
,, M	Philology . . .	5	,, ,,
,, N	Fiction, Poetry, etc. .	31	,, ,,
,, O-W	History and Travel .	15	,, ,,
,, X	Biography . . .	8	,, ,,
		100	

There are one or two changes which modern practice will make probable in these percentages, such as increases in the percentages of classes A-I and a decrease in class N. The attention now bestowed upon technical education and the universal provision of music texts will almost inevitably increase classes B and C at the expense of some other classes.

177. Imaginative literature rightly takes first place in the representation of classes, and when made up of Prose Fiction, Poetry, Music and Painting, accounts for about 33 per cent. of the whole. Although Bacon in his classification of human knowledge places Imagination as represented by Poetry at the end of his scheme, thereby, perhaps, indicating his opinion of its comparative importance, there can be no doubt that as regards popularity, importance and longevity it easily maintains first place in the minds and hearts of a majority of the human race. Whose are the great names in literature? The philosophers, or historians, or scientists? None of these. The story-teller, the song-writer, the singer and the artist completely overshadow all other kinds of literary and scientific genius, and monopolize a foremost position of honour among mankind, because, after all, they are the greatest teachers as well as the most capable entertainers. Homer, Dante, Shakespeare, Goethe, Cervantes, Molière, Balzac, Hugo, Scott, Dickens, Fielding, Thackeray, Burns, Byron, Milton, Beethoven, Handel, Wagner, Titian, Raphael, Turner, Rembrandt, and so on in endless variety, are infinitely greater and more treasured names to thousands of human beings than any of the exponents of more formal and exact knowledge. The story-teller and the singer will be remembered long after philosophies, and systems of history and science are as mouldering and forgotten as the ruins of ancient Babylon. The great majority of the people of all nations will much rather sing with the singers than chop logic with the philosophers, and this is at once a reason and justification for imaginative literature occupying the leading place in all public libraries. It has become the fashion for a certain section of librarians, a few public men

and a considerable number of newspapers, to lament in doleful accents the popularity and preponderance of fiction reading in all kinds of lending libraries. But surely, Fiction, as the most hardy and flourishing form of literary endeavour, which has been built up by the contributions of some of the greatest minds of all nations, is not going to be denied its rightful place because certain narrow-minded persons think it fashionable to denounce the whole policy of public libraries? Whether they choose to do so or not matters very little, since it is quite evident that imaginative literature is going to survive, whatever happens, as it has done with extraordinary strength and vitality, through ages of change and destruction; while philosophical, political and social systems have appeared and disappeared in endless procession. This is a reason why imaginative literature should occupy a foremost place in all public libraries, and the theory of the survival of the fittest is amply proved by the vitality of prose fiction, poetry and music, which entitles them to receive the attention due to their importance in the regard of mankind.

178. Best Books.—A live, up-to-date library, in addition to the literary classics in all departments, should only select the best and most popular books. The question of selecting only the very best, or only what is in great demand, should be compromised by always getting the best, with a selection of the most popular, subject to the understanding that the latter are to be discarded when their day is past. Every movement which stirs the public mind and imagination produces a great crop of books, but only a very small proportion of these survive, or are worthy of preservation. No one can argue against a moderate supply of such works at the time when public interest is aroused, but objection may be raised to the more ephemeral books of this kind being preserved long after all interest in their subjects has waned. If a municipal library founded in 1750, and steadily collecting for 156 years, could be found, its contents would be composed of enormous quantities of dead and forgotten theology, history, biography, science,

fiction and every other class, which would not excite the slightest interest in the minds of five persons in a thousand. The skimmings of such a library would no doubt be valuable, and a fair proportion of it of interest and use to present-day readers, but the bulk of it would be of no practical service to any one.

179. The general public are comparatively indifferent to bibliographical rarities, and books which are merely curious or scarce should never be bought from the present restricted funds of British municipal libraries. There is a certain advantage in making a small special collection, on the museum plan, to trace and illustrate the evolution and history of printing and book production from the original manuscript forms, but the general collection of incunabula and rare specimens of typography by modern municipal libraries is not to be generally commended. There is infinitely more wisdom in spending £50 in a selection of modern works on technical subjects, which would be of immense service to living persons, than in spending the same amount in the purchase of a single rare Bible which will only appeal to a few students of typography. Books must not be regarded as an investment on which a profit can be made by a sale at some future date, because books of bibliographical rarity and much monetary value bought from public funds must remain public property, inalienable for all time. The books bought for a public library should rather be regarded as machinery or plant, to be renewed when necessary and kept thoroughly abreast of the times.

180. Returning to the question of buying and preserving books of temporary interest. There are hundreds of subjects which in their day have excited great public interest, and in connexion with which an enormous literature exists, but which have faded into comparative insignificance with the lapse of time. Take subjects like the Jacobite Rebellions, French Revolution, American Civil War, the Slavery controversy, Crimean War or Disruption of the Church of Scotland. Every one of these subjects was represented in its day by cart-loads of books

and pamphlets, but the whole of these have been sifted and epitomized by later historians in works of permanent value, and municipal libraries can simply buy these, and leave the preservation of the contemporary literature, which ranks as original authorities, to the care of the special libraries which exist for the purpose. The literature of the Boer War is a case in point. It is necessary for public libraries while public interest is keen to select the best, or what may seem best, from the mass of stuff pouring from the press, but presently all this will be condensed into three or four classics, giving in a comprehensive and sufficient manner every fact of the slightest interest to posterity, and then all the ephemeral works can be discarded in their favour. What remains of any particular interest to students, or even ordinary readers, from the huge literature which arose from the Crimean War? Only Kinglake and perhaps two popular illustrated books. The same holds good with all subjects which have created immense contemporary literatures, and there need not be the slightest compunction about discarding any book when its usefulness is past unless it takes rank as a valuable original authority. At a later stage some suggestions on book discarding or library weeding are given, which may prove helpful.

181. Book selection should be conducted upon the sound principle of buying only the best representative works on all subjects, whatever may be their cost or place of origin. A more haphazard and ineffectual method of building up a public library than buying cheap series and libraries of reprints can hardly be imagined. It is almost equivalent to advising a committee to buy cheap books by the yard in order to fill the shelves, and let the proper representation of great subjects depend on chance. Books published in "series" or "libraries" are too often mere commercial ventures, got up to sell by people who have nothing particular to say; and in the case of editions of standard authors, such uniform series are often the very worst form in which a poet or novelist can be presented to a reader. They are full of errors and omissions, and whether

the series is devoted to art, science, literature or history, it may be taken for granted that they are simply temporary text-books which possess the doubtful advantage of being bound uniformly, and the undoubted disadvantage of being often uniformly erroneous and misleading. Of course this statement does not apply all round, because there are several well-known series of works of quite exceptional value. Connected with this a word may be permitted on the nationality of text-books. Patriotism in literature and library management may be a very fine thing, but it must occasionally lead to very sorry results in a public library. The best and most recent scientific works, whether on biology, geology or any other subject, should be bought without regard to the nationality of the authors.

182. Popular Books.—The duplication of popular or temporarily popular books is a policy to be adopted with the greatest of care. In some libraries the plan of multiplying copies of every book which becomes fashionable is carried to such an extreme that some injury must be done to the general work of the library by unduly fostering one class of literature at the expense of all the other classes. The practice of adding six copies of this new novel and six copies of that, must have the effect of decreasing the funds available for the purpose of buying different works on the same or various subjects of importance, and it certainly gives rise to misleading conceptions of the stock of books possessed by the libraries. A reported stock of 5,000 novels may easily mean an actual stock of only 3,000 different works to choose from in libraries which buy three, six or twelve copies of a single popular work. This makes a vast difference in the field of choice offered to borrowers, because, after all, popular novels of the ordinary boomed class, such as are manufactured in America to sell to drapers, etc., by the thousand, soon have their little day, and the duplicate copies become absolutely dead stock. For this reason caution should be exercised in the supply of extra copies of temporarily popular books, and a special stock or accessions book may be provided in which they can be registered and, when necessary, written off

without complicating the other records of the library. These remarks apply almost exclusively to the duplication of novels and magazines. There is less need to trouble about other classes.

183. Replacements and Out-of-print Books.—Replacement of worn-out books is a serious matter in most libraries, but in English municipal libraries it assumes undue importance owing to the rate limitation, which makes this necessary provision a drain upon the fund available for new books. Before replacing an old or dirty book it should be carefully considered if it is worth retaining in the library. Closely connected with the question of replacements is the matter of out-of-print books.

Most librarians in libraries of several years' standing have been confronted with the difficulty of obtaining copies of certain books which have been allowed to go out of print by their publishers. The number of such books is rapidly increasing, and among them are works which have taken a recognized place in English literature, as well as many others which have obtained a permanent value by being enshrined in the catalogues of hundreds of public and other libraries. In course of time many of these books are worn out, and it becomes necessary to replace them with new copies. It is then the discovery is made that fresh copies cannot be obtained, and the librarian is filled with dismay on receiving a long list of books from his bookseller marked with the ominous sign "O/P". Time after time this experience is repeated, till the librarian begins to wonder if any of his catalogue entries of certain authors will stand good. A temporary relief is sometimes obtained by advertising for second-hand copies. Even these are becoming more difficult to procure, and in the case of novelists like G. P. R. James, James Grant and Harrison Ainsworth, sometimes only three-volume editions are reported. It is, therefore, quite evident that the time has arrived for some combined effort to be made by the librarians of the country, if their shelves are to be kept in agreement with their catalogues.

It is not suggested that all out-of-print books which have

figured in public library catalogues should be reprinted, but that every popular and good book which has been allowed to drop should be republished in a suitable form. There are hundreds of good books which are mentioned in every history of English literature, which are quoted by speakers and newspapers, which appear in library catalogues, and which people are led to ask for because of such references, though no longer to be had in any modern edition. There are other books which have obtained a certain measure of recognition and wide popularity, which, for some unknown reason, have been allowed to disappear from the lists of their publishers. Apart from the desirability of having copies of such books in public libraries in order to keep catalogues and stock books complete and correct, the further and greater question remains of keeping such books in print because of their place in English literature. In the case of some of the older books which form landmarks in literary history, it will be absolutely necessary to have well-edited modern reprints for the benefit of the students who are being formed in every school in the kingdom.

If a general understanding could be arrived at, that a certain number of the libraries of the country would purchase so many copies of the books as issued, there would be very little difficulty about getting a publisher or publishers to undertake the issue of public library editions, which would be creditable to all concerned.

Books which are purchased to replace worn-out copies need not receive new numbers, but may be given the numbers of the books which they replace.

184. Doubtful Books.—Censorship on books admitted into public libraries has been exercised much more frequently and rigorously in the United States than in the United Kingdom. Instances are common in both countries of books being excluded for sectarian or political reasons by Public Library Committees. Any action of this kind on the part of a Public Library Committee should be confined to protecting junior readers from coming into contact with demoralizing literature, and preventing

the library from becoming a dumping ground for feeble and trashy books of all kinds. No one can object to a committee electing to sit in judgment on any book which may be thought to endanger public decency, or inculcate ideas of morality counter to those generally adopted, but such explorations in search of the improper should not be confined to fiction. The question of buying certain *free* classics like Rabelais, Boccaccio, is quite another matter. All libraries ought to possess them, provided reasonable means are taken to prevent them falling into the hands of the immature reader. As regards what constitutes maturity, every library authority will doubtless frame their own rules.

185. Reference and Lending Books.—A difficulty is sometimes experienced in deciding for which department books of a certain class are most suitable. About such quick-reference works as encyclopædias, dictionaries, annuals, directories, atlases, large art works, etc., there can be very little doubt, but expensive scientific books, large works of travel, theological and historical works of a certain kind offer a problem much more complicated. As reference libraries are at present constituted and used in many English towns, the plan of putting all expensive books of whatever nature in the reference department simply means that they are seldom used, and might as well not have been bought. In properly conducted open-access reference libraries, which are liberally and intelligently conducted, a good deal may be said in favour of placing such books there. They will at least be freely accessible without the formality of readers having to make written application, while the advantage of a reference book being always on the premises is not to be overlooked. No harm can result from placing all kinds of expensive text-books in the lending department, and if they are not on loan they are always available for the use of any reference reader who wants them. The advantage to a student of being able to take a recondite and expensive text-book home with him for comparison with, and as an aid to, his own books is undeniable, and it is the fact that, by co-operation, the citizens of a town

can thus procure otherwise unattainable books, which makes the Public Libraries Acts so valuable, and adds force to the plea for placing expensive works within easy reach of the majority of readers. Local circumstances will in most cases modify the conditions under which reference and lending libraries are built up and differentiated. In some places there is no separation, save in the catalogue, between the reference and lending libraries, and in others both departments are not only kept apart, but subdivided into open, special and store collections. All this is very much a matter of administration to be settled by each responsible officer in accordance with his or her knowledge of the particular local conditions.

186. **Local Collections.**—It is hardly necessary to point out the very great importance of every public library commencing forthwith the formation of a collection of local books and other printed matter. It is difficult to make any distinction between what should be collected and what passed over. It is best to collect everything local, and let posterity decide what is worth retaining. The following suggestions may prove useful to inexperienced committees in doubt as to what is meant by a local collection. A local collection should contain :—

1. Every book, pamphlet or manuscript referring to the town or district.
2. Every print, drawing, map, plan (including those connected with land sales), or other similar publication or original copy.
3. Every book or pamphlet printed locally.
4. Books by authors who are natives of the town or district, and biographical notices and portraits.
5. Every newspaper or magazine or other serial produced in the district.
6. Photographs of every notable building, street, person or event in the district. [These may often be secured through the friendly co-operation of the local photographic societies.]
7. Election and other bills and posters, play-bills, concert programmes and other similar advertisements of local events.
8. All local records, or copies of them, such as registers, minutes and other MS. or printed records of the local authorities. [This is a very important matter, which ought to be settled definitely by Parliament. All local records should be accessible to the public, under proper safeguards, and the public libraries are the best centres in which to store and exhibit such records.]

It is better to let the local collection grow naturally than to attempt to force it into prominence all at once, unless some private collector's treasures can be acquired by gift or purchase with which to make a start. No local collection should be fostered at the expense of the general work of the library. Some librarians with antiquarian tastes occasionally do this, in districts rich in historical and archæological associations, to the undoubted prejudice of the efficiency of the general library.

187. Special Collections.—Most public libraries possess some kind of special collection in addition to the purely local collection. Examples of these may be specified in the Shakespeare and Cervantes collections at Birmingham; the Burns and Scottish poetry collections at Glasgow; music, shorthand, Chinese books, etc., at Manchester; fishes at Cheltenham; Welsh literature at Cardiff, etc. The literature of special local industries should always be collected, and there are good examples of such special libraries at Wigan (mining), Nottingham (lace and hosiery), Shoreditch (furniture), Clerkenwell (art metal-work, watchmaking), Rochdale (wool), etc. Works in foreign languages, particularly French, German and Italian, should also be collected, in addition to the Greek and Latin classics.

188. Sets of Magazines.—At one time it was considered a good thing to collect the principal magazines indexed in Poole's *Index to Periodical Literature*, but there is now much less enthusiasm on this point. When all is said in favour of magazine-literature that can be said, the fact still remains that the interest in special articles is very short-lived, and only extends to about 5 per cent. of the contents of ordinary general magazines. Again, the best contributions to magazines are generally collected and published in a separate form, and so become procurable in a much handier form. The bulk of the contents of the ordinary magazines are articles on current matters of ephemeral interest, which do not endure more than a few years. For these and other reasons it is not advisable for any public library to meet the cost of collecting, binding and storing long

sets of periodicals which are very seldom consulted. As regards scientific literature, an elaborate special index is being issued by the Royal Society, which will make the contents of British and foreign periodical literature fully available. Any public library existing on a limited income which deliberately proceeds to buy all the old magazines like the *Gentleman's, Edinburgh, Blackwood's, European, Quarterly*, etc., for the mere sake of having them on the shelves, does a great injury to its supporters by thus wasting money in the provision of dead stock. The money could be much more profitably expended on the latest technical, historical and scientific works of current interest. The same may be said of Hansard's *Parliamentary Debates* and other stock sets, without which some librarians imagine their libraries would be incomplete.

189. Music.—Nearly every public library of any importance has now established a music collection, and the general experience is that it is one of the most popular and appreciated sections in the library. The provision should not at first extend to more than collections of pianoforte, violin, organ and vocal music in the form of bound volumes ; operas, oratorios, cantatas and other vocal scores ; the scores of orchestral and chamber compositions ; and text-books on theory, history and various instruments. Single compositions in sheet form should be very sparingly introduced, if at all, unless collections of the songs of some of the best modern composers are formed and bound up into volumes. A large stock of compositions in single sheets, however bound or secured, would prove a great trouble in a public library. The compositions of local composers should be collected, however, and bound in volumes. In providing shelving for music, it is well to have special cases with uprights only eighteen inches apart, as it is very difficult to consult long rows of thin quarto books, when on shelves three feet long, owing to the weight of the books. This applies to quarto and folio books generally.

190. Engravings.—Save in book form, very few public libraries have done much in the way of collecting engravings,

prints and etchings, unless they have been of local interest. Considerations of expense would deter most British public libraries from attempting this kind of collection, and it is rather a pity, because many prints and engravings which illustrate historical events have immense practical value. Portraits, too, are extremely valuable and useful, but as means are at present provided, the whole matter is one of pure speculation and sentiment. But, perhaps, the day will come when public libraries may be able to collect specimens of the etched work of great artists; engravings after the greatest masters; engravings and prints depicting leading events in the national history; and pictures illustrating costume, ceremonials, manners and customs, disappearing buildings, great engineering works, topographical changes, etc. The value of these graphic aids to the furtherance of knowledge is enormous, and it is a pity some systematic effort cannot be made to record, preserve and index them more generally and effectively than has been done in depositories like the British Museum.

191. Photographs.—Collections of photographs which deal with local matters should be made by every public library, as recommended in Section 186. Certain American libraries also collect photographs of great pictures and those which represent various natural forms. Studies for the use of artists are also collected, mounted on cards, and made accessible, and some of these attempts to popularize art should be made in British libraries. Photographs are comparatively cheap, and almost every kind of picture and study can be obtained in this medium. What is particularly required is some kind of practical list or guide, drawn up by an expert, from which libraries could make their selections. A systematic list covering the various arts of design, historical painting, sculpture, architecture, etc., would be of great service. Photographs of great public events, ceremonials, buildings, etc., and of eminent personages, would have to be purchased according to means, and, as every one knows, this might be made an endless matter. There is no reason, however, why public libraries should not preserve good

photographs of the most eminent authors, artists, musicians, scientists, military commanders, royal personages, etc. Portraits of such persons are not always easy to find in books, when required, especially as the "A.L.A. portrait-index" is limited in scope; therefore a separate collection of portraits in alphabetical order would be a valuable addition to a public library. In this connexion it is useful to remove portraits of celebrities, views, etc., from worn-out books and magazines, and preserve them along with all other appropriate matter.

192. Lantern Slides.—In libraries which possess lecture-room or other suitable accommodation, it is often desirable to collect lantern slides on such subjects as local topography and history, or on topics which illustrate bibliographical and kindred subjects. These will be found very useful, and as the collection increases, sets can be lent out to societies or individuals who require them for lectures. The cost of storing and cataloguing the slides is not great, and they are undoubtedly a valuable addition to the pictorial side of literature.

193. Trade and other Catalogues.—A most useful department, though somewhat difficult to maintain, is a collection of the best and most representative catalogues and price lists of all kinds of commodities. Several points crop up in connexion with the work of forming such collections, and the question of policy is perhaps the most important. Many firms will not give their price lists; and it may be considered invidious to select firms, thereby suggesting favouritism and unfair advertising. In some industries prices, ideas and designs are regarded as trade secrets, and doubtless jealousies might be stirred up in some quarters. But the fact remains that illustrated catalogues of books, furniture, ironmongery, machinery, pottery, art publications, scientific apparatus, etc., are often more generally useful than text-books or special trade and professional journals. Even pattern books of wall-papers, bookbinders' cloths, leather-work, typefounding and so forth are of immense service to special students, and an effort should be made to strengthen

the literary side of suitable subjects by a judicious selection of the best illustrated trade catalogues.

194. Books for the Blind.—Many libraries now store and circulate books for the blind in the Braille and Moon types, and in this work some of them have been aided by the expert advice and actual donations of special societies interested in the well-being of the blind. There is quite an extensive and rapidly growing literature for the blind in the special raised type required for finger-reading, and a library of a few hundreds of volumes makes quite an imposing show. The question of space will arise in many places, because books for the blind are, as a rule, only embossed on one side of each page, and, owing to this embossing and the size of the type, some books make several thick quarto volumes. No space could, however, be devoted to a more humane or valuable purpose than the storage of books for the blind, and every encouragement and support should be given to the movement; though it would undoubtedly be the most effective method of ministering to the needs of the locality to subscribe for a constantly changing supply of books to one of the institutions for the blind which make a speciality of this kind of work.

195. Maps.—In addition to all local maps and plans, old and new, sets of the Ordnance and Geological Survey maps on the one-inch scale should be added. Atlases will exist in the reference library as a matter of course, but maps of the United Kingdom suitable for tourists, cyclists, anglers, climbers, etc., should be added as freely as possible.

196. Discarding Effete Books.—The question of periodically weeding out a public library, with the object of keeping it always up-to-date and also making room for fresh additional stock, has already been partly discussed in Sections 104, etc. and 170, etc. It is a most important part of modern public library policy, which will require to receive much greater attention in the future than it has in the past. As pointed out at Cataloguing, the periodical reprinting of class lists affords a valuable opportunity for considering the claims of certain kinds of books to remain idle on the shelves, where they not

only fill the space which should be available for more alive works, but they obstruct the general work of the library. Every public library receives at one time or another books which must for reasons of policy be catalogued. Such books, for example, as are donated, are expected to be placed in the library and duly catalogued. There are generally hundreds of such books in every large library, which have been received from donors who recognize that a certain amount of *kudos* attaches to a public-spirited citizen who gives books to a library, while they take care that only the lumber and rubbish of their own collections are presented. It is very rarely that the average public library receives anything more valuable than the sweepings of some private collection, or literature sent free by political, sectarian and commercial coteries. Gifts of modern scientific books, or works of travel, or batches of the best current fiction are just the kind that are seldom or never made. But piles of unbound and ragged periodicals, old guide-books, calf-bound theology of the eighteenth century, prayer-books, and useless lumber of the same sort seem to exist in untold quantities, and are the usual donations thought suitable for public libraries. From this source, and also the mistaken selections of committees and librarians, come a large number of books which are of very little use, and these should be discarded as soon as decency permits. There are also, of course, the books which go out of use automatically, such as those noted in the subjoined RULES, and those others which manage to slip into libraries when the custodian is dreaming of higher things, or is misled by the erroneous titles adopted by authors. An annual process of weeding out libraries is not recommended, but there are occasions, such as when the catalogues are being reprinted, the books are being rearranged, or any kind of fresh movement is being made, when the opportunity should be seized to judiciously prune the luxuriant growth of weeds which will somehow manage to infest the best-regulated libraries in spite of every care. The sentimental museum idea is, of course, responsible for much of the tendency

to collect and preserve everything, on the Byronic theory, no doubt, that

A book's a book, although there's nothing in't,

and, as a library is a repository for books, then *all* books should be collected and preserved at any hazard or sacrifice, be they good or bad.

197. Rules for Discarding Useless Books :—

Class A—Science.—All general works which are not epoch-making, but merely recapitulations of ascertained facts, should be discarded when twenty years old. Care should be taken not to discard any book, however old, which has not been efficiently superseded. All ordinary text-books of every science, save mathematics and occult science, may be discarded when twenty years old. Nicely illustrated text-books, especially of zoology and botany, should be discarded with much caution.

Useful Arts.—The same rules apply to this class as to Class A, save that patents specifications, recipes, books on household arts, and all finely illustrated books should be retained.

Fine Arts.—Books must be discarded very sparingly in this section. Collections of engravings, finely illustrated books, and collected music, not at all.

Class J-K—Theology and Philosophy.—Philosophical works, particularly systems of philosophy, should never be discarded. Historical and explanatory text-books may be discarded as they become superseded by later works. Old theology, commentaries on the Bible, sectarian literature and sermons should be discarded very freely. Theological controversies should never be collected by general municipal libraries unless of local interest.

Class L—Social Science.—This class requires frequent revision, especially in the sections devoted to political economy, government, law and other topics. Books on questions of momentary interest can be replaced by historical résumés. Constantly changing subjects like law, government and political economy should be kept up-to-

date as much as possible, and the historical record kept by means of recent histories. Questions like parliamentary reform, slavery and chartism are illustrations of once burning topics which may just as well be represented by a few modern histories as by actual collections of the very voluminous literature attached to each subject.

CLASS M—LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE.—Old grammars may be discarded without risk, and also ordinary school dictionaries. Books on literary history, bibliography and librarianship are tools and should never be discarded.

CLASS No—PROSE FICTION.—Novelists mentioned in literary histories should never be discarded. Minor novelists of all kinds, who are not mentioned in literary histories, whose works have remained unissued for a year or two, should be promptly discarded. So, also, should mere catch-penny topical novels of no permanent interest, which libraries are often forced to buy under pressure. A continuous popularity is a good reason for retaining any novel, provided it is not immoral.

CLASS N 1-2—POETRY AND DRAMA.—Collective works should never be discarded unless efficiently superseded. But poets and dramatists of a day who are no longer read may be safely discarded, but no one who is named in histories of literature.

CLASS O-W—HISTORY AND GEOGRAPHY.—Historical works which are mere résumés, and not themselves original authorities, may be discarded with comparative safety; but the matter of illustrations again applies here with considerable force. Works of travel of the ordinary globe-trotting description may be discarded when ten years old, along with all kinds of guide-books, save those which are local. But here, again, beware of discarding illustrated books. Pioneer works of exploration should be retained. Old gazetteers are, as a rule, lumber, but some of the illustrated ones, like Lewis' for Britain, may be retained for their armorial illustrations. Histories which are

literary classics, like Hume, Robertson, Clarendon, should be kept, even if superseded by more accurate modern works.

CLASS X—BIOGRAPHY.—Collected biography should never be discarded. The biographies of nonentities in the individual biography class may, however, be weeded pretty freely and frequently after they are from forty to fifty years old.

MISCELLANEOUS.—Discard old encyclopædias with care; newspapers or directories freely. Retain all local matter of this kind however. Be extremely chary about storing inferior magazines of the miscellany order. A long set of an old magazine of this kind is a positive incubus, and most modern magazines of the snippet order are not worth houseroom. Wear them out in the reading rooms by all means, but do not preserve them.

198. None of the foregoing recommendations for discarding apply to bibliographical rarities or curiosities; to works of recognized literary merit which are mentioned in histories of literature; to books which are of local interest; or to special collections. They apply simply and solely to the rank and file of literature, the 50 per cent. of the fruits of the press which become stale through effluxion of time. The question of how to dispose of discarded books can generally be decided by some local circumstance. Discarded text-books of science are generally of little value to any one, and need not be preserved at all. But faded works of travel, history and biography may find interested readers in workhouses, hospitals and prisons. To these, or similar institutions, the discarded books of a public library could be transferred. It is hardly necessary to point out that books which are not good enough or fresh enough for a central library, are not good enough for a branch library. Books proposed to be permanently withdrawn should be submitted to the library committee, and lists of the discarded books should be printed in the bulletin, if there is one, or, failing that, in a separate form. It is only right that all readers likely to be interested should be afforded an opportunity of judging the proposals and action of the library committee in its work of

weeding out the library. Any serious objection to a book being removed should be duly considered, and nothing should be done without the utmost deliberation, because, as yet, we have not achieved a public library *index expurgatorius* of books not worth preserving. When this comes, the task will be immensely lightened. No books which are discarded should be permitted to leave the library unless stamped, to indicate that they are rejected. A stamp with a movable dating centre should be used, with the words, " Public Library, Discarded," in a circle.

199. Practical Methods of Selection.—The number of books which have been published to aid in book selection is somewhat large, but very few of them, save, perhaps, Sonnenschein's publications, make any attempt to indicate the best editions of particular authors. It may be assumed that every entry in these lists of best books represents a work which is recommended on account of its merit, literary or otherwise. But something more than this is required by the librarian who is faced with the task of building up a great modern library, and is limited in his selection to books of the most enduring merit, and those which most completely and accurately record the state of the science or subject to which they are devoted. It is a very easy matter to simply order *books*, like the millionaire who fitted up his library by the superficial yard, thereby tempting a bookseller, entrusted with a large order for books of a uniform size in fine bindings, to bind up some hundreds of copies of a cheap "remainder," in different covers, but with varying titles, in order to provide in dummy form the necessary mileage of books required. Public library formation can hardly be undertaken in this happy-go-lucky manner.

200. The principal aids to the selection of new books are journals of various kinds, which review and advertise them as published. Comparatively few of the literary journals review books in a manner helpful to the would-be book-buyer, because they do not describe the contents of them so much as criticize their literary style, production, printers' errors, etc. Generally speaking, a modern book review is what it was in the old days

of the *Edinburgh* and *Quarterly*, simply a peg on which to hang the reviewer's opinions on the subject of the book, and on which to display his knowledge and critical insight. The subject of the book, its style of treatment, scope, and details of its contents are left to be divined by the reader. Some of the modern publishers' monthly catalogues are much more helpful than any journal or review, because they add brief descriptive notes to each entry of a new book. A plain, practical note outlining the principal contents and intention of a book is worth pages of critical remarks to the librarian book-buyer. The following is a list of the journals most used by librarians in selecting new books :—

GENERAL :—

Academy Athenæum Literary World Publishers' Circular Saturday Review Nation (London) Spectator Times Literary Supplement.	Weekly and monthly, most of them giving a summary list of new books, reviews and advertisements.

Bookman (gives brief annotations).
Bookseller.
Book Monthly.
A. L. A. Book List.
Nation (New York).
Publishers' Weekly (New York).
Library World.

SPECIAL :—

Nature (scientific books generally).
English Mechanic (technical books).
Engineer " "
Current Foreign books can readily be found in the lists issued by Brockhaus, Hachette, Williams & Norgate, Dulau, etc.

In addition to the very uncertain and unsatisfactory method of thus choosing new books by their titles, because it amounts to very little else, some arrangement is required whereby libraries can obtain non-fictional books on view, so that they can be properly examined before being ordered.

201. The best guides to the titles of old books, which, of course, include modern books other than recent publications, will be found in the lists in Sections 79 to 81. Here again, no doubt owing to the largeness of the field, notes in aid of choice are badly wanted. Sonnenschein's books are the best in this respect, if the special annotated lists are excepted.

REFERENCE LIST OF AUTHORITIES :—

202. Book Selection : General—

Aldred (T.) Book selection and rejection. L. A. R., v. 3, p. 143.

Baker (E. A.) Wanted—a guide-book to books. L. A. R., v. 2, p. 89.

Brown (J. D.) Reprints of standard books. L. W., v. 6, p. 8 *et seq.*

—— Select lists of books on important subjects. L., v. 7, p. 363.

Burgoyne (F. J.) Choice of books for small libraries. (With list of bibliographies, etc.) L. A. R., v. 3, p. 189.

—— Selection and purchase of books. L. W., v. 1, pp. 136, 157.

Cutler (M. S., Mrs. Fairchild) Principles of selection of books. L. J., v. 20, p. 399.

Cutter (C. A.) Should libraries buy only the best books or the best books people will read? L. J., v. 26, p. 70.

Cutter (W. P.) Notes on book purchasing for small libraries. L. J., v. 30, p. 18.

Dana (J. C.) Book selection. *In his* "Library primer," p. 39.

Fletcher (W. I.) Selection and purchase of books. *In his* "Public libraries in America," p. 68.

Foster (W. E.) Where ought the emphasis to be placed in library purchases? L. J., v. 29, p. 229.

Jacobson (K. M.) Book selection and buying. L. N., No. 5, p. 5.

Larned (J. N.) Selection of books for a public library. L. J., v. 20, p. 270.

The Library in relation to special classes of readers. (Papers by various writers.) L. J., v. 31, Conf. no., pp. 65-85.

Lindsay (M. B.) Some general principles of book selection. P. L., v. 10, p. 267.

The Municipal librarian's aims in book-buying. (Symposium.) L. (N. S.), v. 7, p. 46.

Prentiss (M. E.) Book selection and purchase for small libraries. P. L., v. 11, p. 55.

Willcock (W. J.) Proportional representation of different classes of literature n libraries. L. A. R., v. 6, p. 336.

203. Book Selection for Branch Libraries—

Barrett (F. T.) Selection of books for branch libraries. L. A. R., v. 6, p. 179.

Jacobsen (S.) Book selection for branch libraries. P. L., v. 10, p. 515.

204. Replacements—

Steiner and Ranck. Replacements. L. J., v. 21, p. 397.

205. Doubtful Books—

Improper books: methods adopted to discover and exclude them. (Symposium.) L. J., v. 20, Conf. no., pp. 32, 36.

206. Reference Books—

Barrett (F. T.) Selection of books for a reference library. L., v. 8, p. 473.

Borrajo (E. M.) Books for the reference library: some selected lists and a suggestion (specialist advice). L. A. R., v. 3, p. 770.

Dent (R. K.) Formation of a small reference library. L., v. 8, p. 519.

Kroeger (A. B.) Guide to the study and use of reference books. 1904. Supplemented annually in L. J.

Richardson (E. C.) Reference books. U. S. Educ. Rept., 1892-1893, v. 1, p. 976.

Wood (B.) Selection of books for a reference library L., v. 8, p. 522.

207. Local Collections and Surveys—

Axon (E.) Public records and public libraries. L. A. R., v. 2, p. 142.

Ballinger (J.) Photographic survey of counties. L., v. 3, p. 436.

Doubleday (W. E.) Local records and public libraries. L. A. R., v. 2, p. 131.

Duckworth (T.) Local and county photographic surveys. L. A. R., v. 7, p. 19.

Gould (I. C.) Local records. L. W., v. 2, pp. 231, 257, 313; v. 5, p. 203.

Plomer (H. R.) Local records and public libraries. L., v. 4, p. 137.

Richardson (R. T.) Classification and arrangement of local collections. L. A. R., v. 7, p. 12.

Shepherd (J.) Topographical prints, etc., in public libraries. L., v. 8, p. 69.

Wright (W. H. K.) Local collections: what should be collected and how to obtain materials. L. A. R., v. 7, p. 1.

208. Special Collections—

Baker (E. A.) French fiction in public libraries. (With list.) L. W., v. 1, pp. 68, 79.

Guppy (H.) French fiction and French juvenile literature for the public library. L. A. R., v. 2, p. 357.

Jast (L. S.) Technical libraries. L. A. R., v. 5, p. 467.

McIlvaine (C.). Special collections in small public libraries. P. L., v. 10, p. 271.

Mathews (E. R. N.) Libraries and music. L., v. 5, p. 190.

209. Fiction—

Coe (E. M.) Fiction. (With list of articles.) U. S. Educ. Rept., 1892-1893, v. 1, p. 993.

Common novels in public libraries. (Symposium on the desirability of excluding novels of no literary or special merit.) L. J., v. 19, Conf. no., p. 14 *et seq.*

Fiction in libraries. (Symposium.) L. J., v. 15, pp. 261, 325; v. 16, p. 8.

Great fiction question. Greenwood's Year Book. 1897, p. 107.

Wadlin (H. G.) Ought public libraries to radically restrict their purchases of current fiction? (Affirmative.) L. J., v. 29, p. 60.

210. Reading for the Blind—

Hartley (M. E.) Reading for the blind. L. W., v. 2, p. 203.

Moon (R. C.) Books and libraries for the blind. L. J., v. 30, p. 269.

Utley (H. M.) Books for the blind. L. J., v. 23, p. 93.

211. Periodicals—

Brown (J. D.) Selection of current periodicals. L. A. R., v. 6, p. 591.

—— Classified list of current periodicals . . . L. A. Series, No. 8, 1904.

212. Religious Books—

Bowerman (G. F.) Principles governing the choice of religious and theological books for public libraries. L. J., v. 30, p. 137.

213. Maps—

Baker (E. A.) Maps in the lending department. L. W., v. 1, p. 54.

—— Ordnance maps. L. W., v. 4, p. 144.

Fletcher (R. S.) Maps and charts in the public library. P. L., 1899, p. 444.

Parsons (F. H.) The Care of maps. L. J., v. 20, p. 199.

214. Discarding—

Brown (J. D.) Library progress. L. (N. S.), v. 1, p. 5.

Clarke (A.) Scientific text-books, and the disposal of editions out of date. L., v. 6, p. 164.

Doubleday (W. E.) Weeding out and kindred problems. L. A. R., v. 6, p. 327.

Faraday (J. G.) Weeding out. L. A., v. 5, p. 46.

Richardson (E. C.) Survival of the fittest among books. L. J., v. 22, Conf. no., p. 45.

Sifting as a library policy. L. J., v. 18, p. 118.

CHAPTER XII.

ACCESSION METHODS.

215. Donations.—The first British Public Library Act did not make any provision for funds with which to buy books: it trusted entirely, with the innocence of extreme youth, to the benevolence of donors. As these somewhat rare persons did not respond in a very encouraging manner, the Acts were forthwith amended, and communities given power to purchase books from such limited funds as were left after loans, the librarian's salary and the gas bill had been settled. Although every library benefits now and again from the generosity of donors of books and money, donations cannot be regarded as a reliable source from which to expect a constant and liberal supply of good and suitable books. Indeed, it may be asserted that more rubbish, in the shape of worthless books and pamphlets, is bestowed annually on public libraries by donors, than anything of a useful or valuable sort. Touting for donations is to be avoided. It is not only undignified, but often results in non-success and a certain loss of status to the library which employs a general begging policy.

State papers and public documents are carefully preserved in many libraries in the United Kingdom. Most of the best parliamentary papers and reports can be obtained free on application to H.M. Stationery Office in London, but other valuable public documents, like some of the Record Office publications, the Ordnance Survey, etc., must be purchased. The parliamentary papers were not given free to public libraries till after years of

agitation dating from the time of Edwards in 1850. A selection of these papers will be found sufficient for most libraries, and this can be made from the lists published by H.M. Stationery Office.

216. All donations, whether good, bad or indifferent, should be duly recorded in a special DONATION BOOK, and the donors should be thanked in the usual manner, either by means of a special circular or post-card. For the majority of donations, a printed post-card of acknowledgment will suffice. Specially valuable gifts must be acknowledged by special resolutions, and conveyed in much handsomer form. The usual wording for post-card acknowledgments runs thus:—

LIBERTON PUBLIC LIBRARY.

I am directed to acknowledge receipt of your donation named below, and to convey to you from the Library Committee the expression of their most cordial thanks.

Yours faithfully,

.....*Librarian.*

FIG. 53.—Donation Acknowledgment (Section 216).

217. The ruling of a donation book (Fig. 54) will be found to answer all ordinary purposes.

The donation number is a progressive number which should be given to all gifts, particularly books, because, when pencilled on volumes which are duplicates or not stocked for any reason, it is easy to ascertain their history by turning up the number in the donation book. Most of the other headings explain themselves. When books are added to the library as donations it is well to carry into this record the accession numbers given to them in the columns provided. In the "Remarks" column can be entered any information as to the disposal of the gifts. In some libraries a book is used which resembles a receipt book in having a counterfoil and a tear-off sheet forming a thanks

circular or acknowledgment form. This style of book is less satisfactory than the form of record given above.

218. Propositions.—There are comparatively few suggestions of new books made by readers in public libraries, most of the proposals coming from the librarian and the committee.

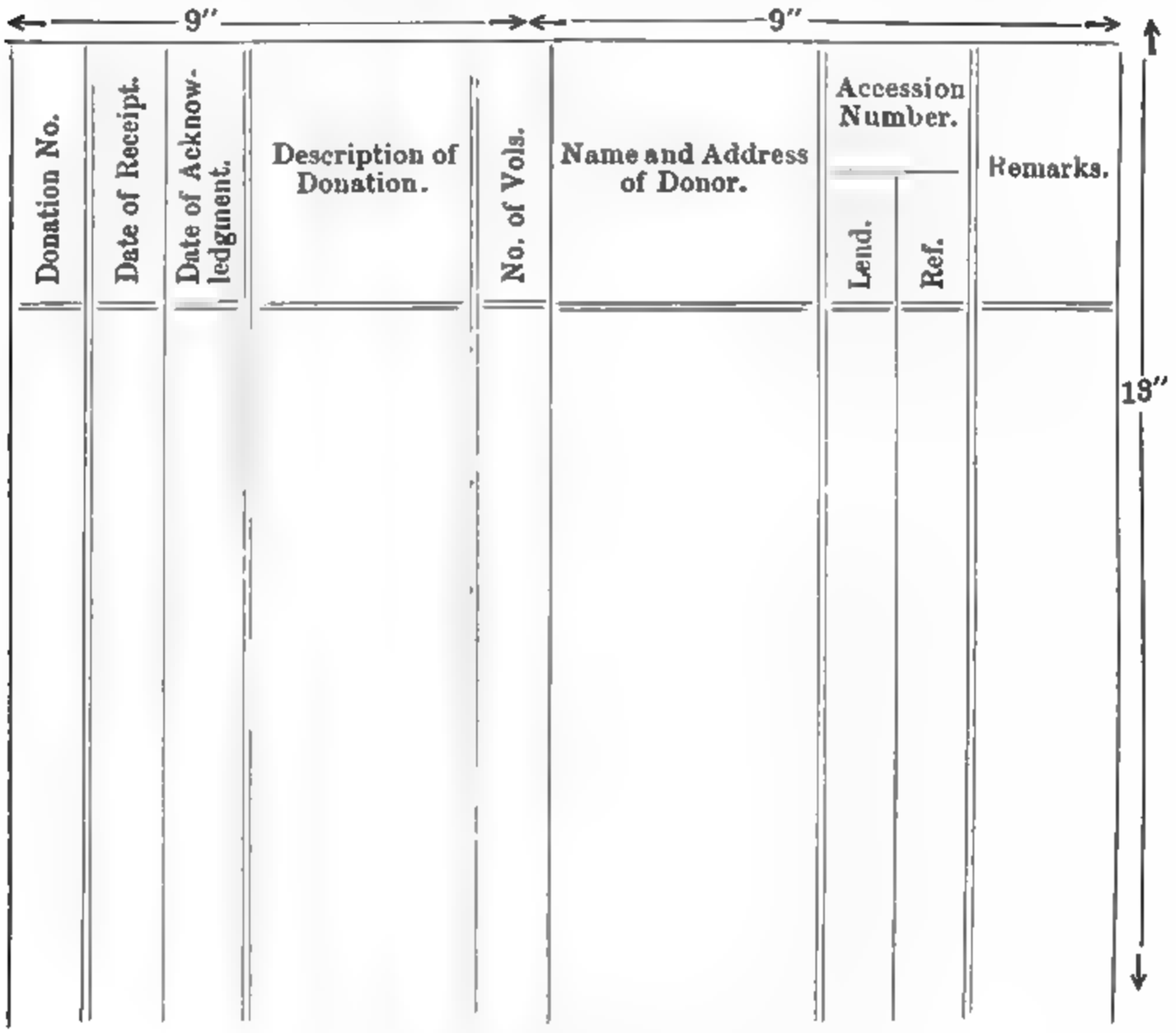


FIG. 54.—Donation Book Ruling (Section 217).

It is customary to provide a book in which members of the public can enter their propositions, or slips, as described in Section 50. Slips are perhaps preferable to books, as they are more likely to be used and are handier to arrange. Failing them, an ordinary foolscap folio book can be provided, ruled with columns across two pages showing—

Date of Proposal.	Author.	Title.	Date of Publ.	Vols.	Price.	Publisher.	Name and Address of Proposer.	Decision of Committee.

FIG. 55.—Proposition Book Ruling (Section 218).

219. From the suggestions of the public and the committee and his own study of reviews, catalogues, journals, etc., the librarian prepares a list of book propositions for the use of the committee, or special books sub-committee, as the case may be. This list may either be entered and kept in the proposition book, or written out on separate slips (5 inches × 2 inches), which can be afterwards used as catalogue copy for the printer. The latter plan is preferable as being more economical and convenient, especially when worked in conjunction with suggestion slips instead of a proposition book. When the list has passed the committee, with whatever modifications they may have imposed, the books can be ordered as described below in Section 221. These propositions are the main source from which the library is selected and built up, and ought to be prepared and examined with great care. Arising out of this part of the subject is the question of buying books at sales. This is often done through a bookseller or other agent, who receives a marked copy of the catalogue, with the prices to be offered written against each entry, and for his services in attending and bidding 5 to 10 per cent. is generally allowed. Of course, at any book-sale in the same town as the library, the librarian may attend, but an experienced agent is more likely to avoid mistakes. Unfortunately very few public libraries can afford to compete with the booksellers and private collectors in the saleroom, and practically this source of accessions is not of much use to the majority of British public libraries.

220. **Subscription Books.**—Sources of book supply in many libraries are the works coming regularly as annuals, or

from societies to whose publications the library subscribes. Patents' specifications, parliamentary reports and other periodical publications also furnish a constant, if somewhat irregular, stream of additions. There should be some simple means of checking these annual and irregular publications, and a series of cards, somewhat similar to those suggested for magazines in Section 449, will be found very convenient. It is hardly necessary to add that these check-cards should be examined regularly every month for overdues and omissions. Societies which issue occasional monographs only are the most difficult to trace and check. With annual publications of a definite kind, such as *Whitaker's Almanack*, there is no trouble whatever.

221. Ordering.—The routine of book ordering should be reduced to the simplest possible system. There are plenty of elaborate methods designed to find out and penalize defaulting assistants, booksellers, etc., but they are not recommended. The very simplest plan is to place the proposition slips in a special tray when passed, in a compartment marked "Books passed by committee," and then to enter them in an ordinary order-sheet, stamping them with the date, to be copied later into an ordinary press copying order book. These order sheets (8 inches × 10 inches) may be ruled thus:—

LIBERTON PUBLIC LIBRARY.

.....190

M .....will oblige by supplying the following books according to the terms of .. .. contract, as soon as possible. accompanied by an invoice setting out the price of every single book, and the discount.

Author.	Title.	Date.	Publisher.	Price.	Remarks.

FIG. 56.—Book-order Sheet (Section 221).

In the "Remarks" column can be entered the date of receipt when a parcel of books is being marked off.

222. The slips aforesaid should be transferred to a compartment marked "Books on order," and as the books are supplied they can be withdrawn and placed in a compartment marked "Books for catalogue". This will leave a residue of overdue books, which can be overhauled every now and again, and transferred to a compartment marked "Books overdue," when written for. A simple form of tray is one divided by means of projecting guides to indicate the contents of each compartment (Fig. 57).

This plan of keeping check of books on order, at every stage,

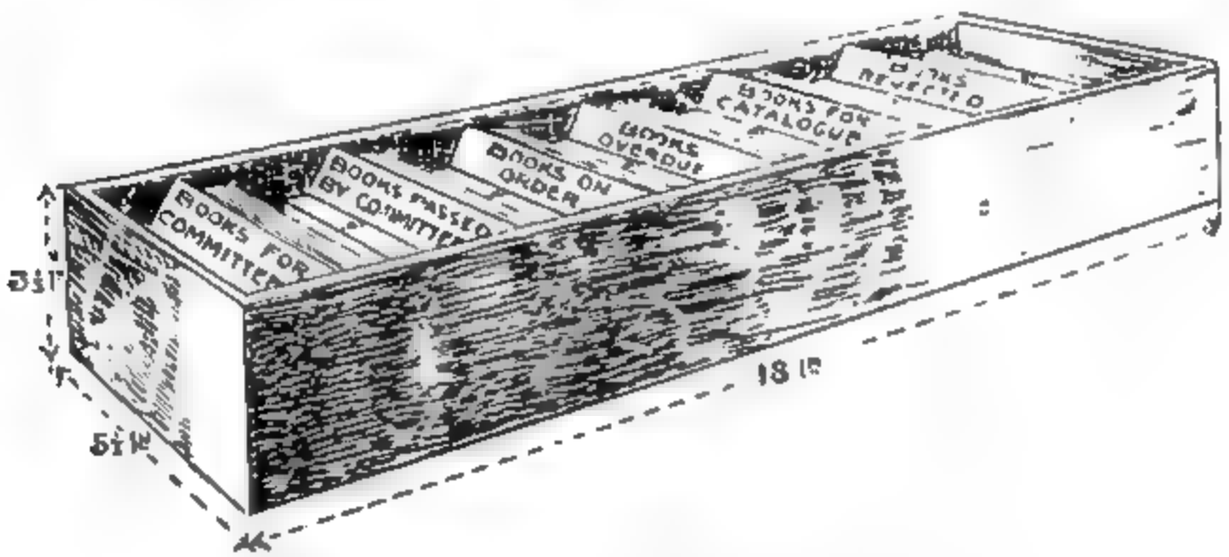


Fig. 57.—Book-order Tray (Sections 221-222).

will be found much simpler, and more accurate and convenient than any system of book-keeping.

223. **Accession Work.**—When a parcel of new books arrives from the bookseller, or a monthly lot of donations is passed, it is wise to enter each lot in a special book called the ROUTINE BOOK, which will determine the order of numbering, and give rough figures of cost and number of additions to all departments. This book is ruled as shown on page 175, and explains itself.

Each lot of new books should be carefully examined for imperfections, etc., before being numbered. They should next be arranged in order of invoice or donation book, with the lending, reference, branch and children's books in separate lots.

224. The ACCESSION NUMBERS must next be applied, and it should be made a rule in every library, whatever method of classification is adopted, to give the books a progressive accession number irrespective of a class number. A special book for recording these numbers can be obtained, one each for the lending and reference libraries, ruled as follows:—

Progressive No.	Class Letter.	Author and Title.	Class or Shelf No.
1	A	Balfour. Manual of Botany.	200
2			
3			
4			
5			
and on to 50 per page			

FIG. 58.—Accessions Number Book (Section 224).

This will show at a glance the next vacant number to be used, and also, roughly, the total number of books in the library at any given moment, when the withdrawals are counted off. The accession numbers should be written on the back of the title-page of each book, and should also be written against the entry on the invoice, and also, if a donation, into the appropriate column of the donation book. In cases where the stock book is also the order book, the accessions number book can be dispensed with, and the accessions routine book used alone.

225. According to the system of charging used, each book should be dealt with further, as regards appropriating its equivalent card, indicator book, or ledger page, as may be needful. Assuming that card charging is the adopted plan, a specially made manila book-card, as below, must be prepared, by having the accession and class number and letter, and its author and title written on its front surface:—

Date.	Source: Donor or Vendor.	First Word of Invoice.	Accession Number.		Number of Vols.		Cost.						Replacements.				Remarks.
			Lend.	Ref.	Lend.	Ref.	Lend.			Ref.			Vols.	Cost.			
1901. June 6	Tompkins Donations	Balfour See Book	1-50	1-25	50	25	7	10	0	6	5	0	6	0	0	0	
„ 12			51-56	...	6	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	19	0	
														...	...	...	

Fig. 69.—Accessions Routine Book (Section 223).

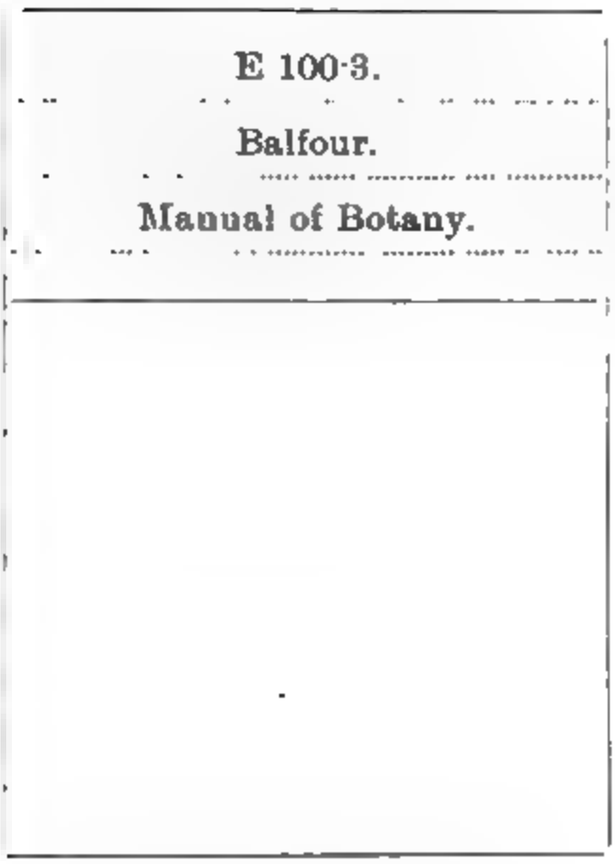


FIG. 60.—Manila Book-card.

This form of book-card may be ruled to take the borrowers' numbers and dates of issues, and is one of the main accessories of the card system described in Section 388.

226. With indicators it is necessary to write the accession numbers on to the indicator books or tabs according to the style of indicator used. In some forms, like the Elliot, the number is already fixed on the indicator frame and requires no additional book tab or block. Other processes connected with book numbering for shelving purposes are considered in Chapter XV.

227. The next process is the LABELLING of the books. Reference library books are usually labelled on the inside of their front boards with the library book plate, which may be an artistic device, or a simple label bearing the town's arms and a few of the chief rules appertaining to the department (Fig. 61). Some libraries add a label ruled in columns to show dates of issue, but we do not recommend this method, although it is useful in libraries which do not grant open access, for showing unused books which might be discarded. Lending library books are labelled with a label pasted down on the inside front

board bearing the chief rules applicable to borrowers, and with a date label secured to the front fly-leaf by means of a narrow line of paste on the inner edge. This enables the label to be easily removed when stamped all over with dates of issue. An ordinary form of date label is ruled in columns to take the dates as shown in Fig. 62.

228. It is a very important matter, affecting not only libraries, but general readers of all kinds, that books should be issued by their publishers in a condition of readiness for immediate use. The absurd and most inconvenient practice of publishing novels, reference books, and indeed any kind of

No.....

METROPOLITAN BOROUGH OF ISLINGTON.

PUBLIC LIBRARIES.

NORTH BRANCH.

MANOR GARDENS, HOLLOWAY ROAD, N.

HOURS. Lending Library OPEN from 10 a.m. till 9 p.m. on week-days. CLOSED on Sundays and public holidays.

RENEWALS. The issue of a book may be renewed for a further period of 15 days on notice being given either personally or in writing. See Rule 19.

RESERVED BOOKS. Any non-fictional book may be reserved on payment of one penny to cover expenses. See Rule 20.

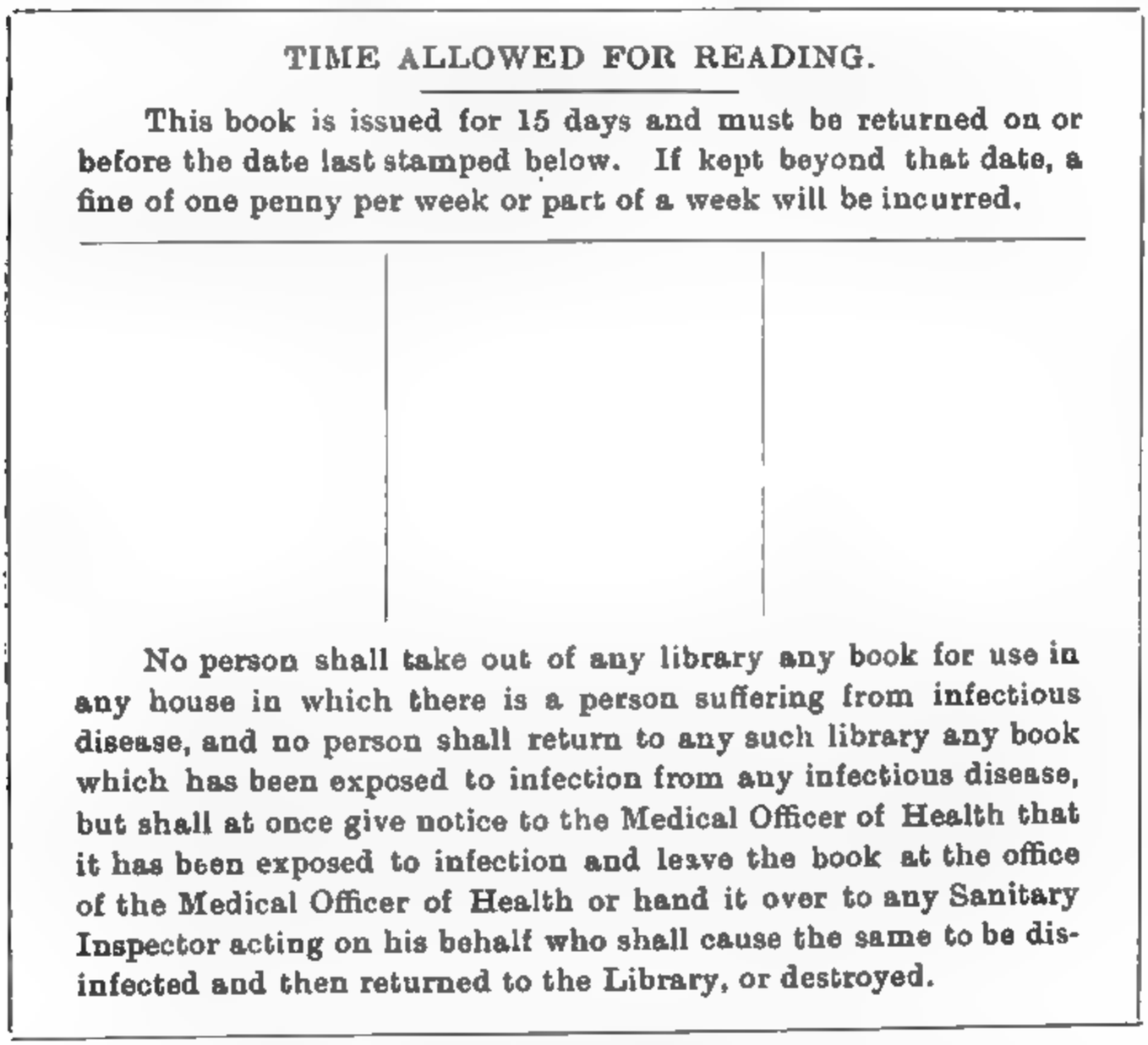
Fig. 61.—Book Label with Abstract of Rules (Section 227).

work, with uncut leaves, is one which causes more waste of time and irritation than almost anything else in connexion with books. A publisher may be justified in sending out special books in limited editions with uncut edges and leaves unopened, but every other kind of book should have its edges neatly and smoothly trimmed and its leaves cut in readiness for the reader. It is cleaner and more convenient, because nothing holds dust like the rough top and fore-edges of books cut with a paper-knife, and for this reason alone it should be made a penal offence to issue books with unopened leaves.

229. The STAMPING and CUTTING the leaves of new books

is the next step in the preparation of books for public use, and as regards the latter it is necessary to insist that the leaves should be cut close into the backs of the books, and not left uncut to within half or quarter an inch of the back, so that an ugly tear is made whenever the book is fully opened. Librarians should teach their assistants that a half-cut book is an abomination not to be endured.

Various kinds of stamps are used, ink, embossing and per-


TIME ALLOWED FOR READING.

This book is issued for 15 days and must be returned on or before the date last stamped below. If kept beyond that date, a fine of one penny per week or part of a week will be incurred.

No person shall take out of any library any book for use in any house in which there is a person suffering from infectious disease, and no person shall return to any such library any book which has been exposed to infection from any infectious disease, but shall at once give notice to the Medical Officer of Health that it has been exposed to infection and leave the book at the office of the Medical Officer of Health or hand it over to any Sanitary Inspector acting on his behalf who shall cause the same to be disinfected and then returned to the Library, or destroyed.

Fig. 62.—Book Label for dates (Section 227).

forating. The ink ones, usually applied with rubber dies, are not satisfactory when used with ordinary aniline endorsing inks, as they can be erased quite easily. Printers' ink is much more satisfactory, but it takes some time to dry, and requires metal stamps to make it work easily. The ink used by the Post Office when applied with a metal stamp has been found effec-

tive. But for their expense embossing stamps are most satisfactory, and of the various kinds of these the perforating stamp formed like a pair of nippers is the easiest to apply. Whatever kind of stamp is used, it should be made in a circular shape, so that no time need be lost in applying it with care in order to secure evenness.

Every library should select certain fixed pages on which the stamps are to be placed, and every title-page, first and last pages of text, and all plates should be stamped. As a rule too much time is wasted in stamping library books, and it will be found quite enough to stamp the places indicated, and use a blind embossing stamp for the boards.

230. STOCK BOOK.—This is the chief inventory or record of the books contained in the library in every department, and should be ruled to show the history of each book from its accession till its final withdrawal. The intermediate renewals of worn-out copies need not be shown in this book, as they complicate the record immensely, and there seems no strong reason for doing more than noting the total number of renewals in the Routine book, as already shown in Section 223. There are many forms of stock books, but for ordinary British municipal libraries the variety shown in the following ruling will be found, with its accessories, quite sufficient for every purpose :—

Accession No.	Author.	Brief Title.	Place of Publication.	Date of Publication.	No. of Vols.

FIG. 63.—Stock Book.—Left-hand Folio (Section 230).

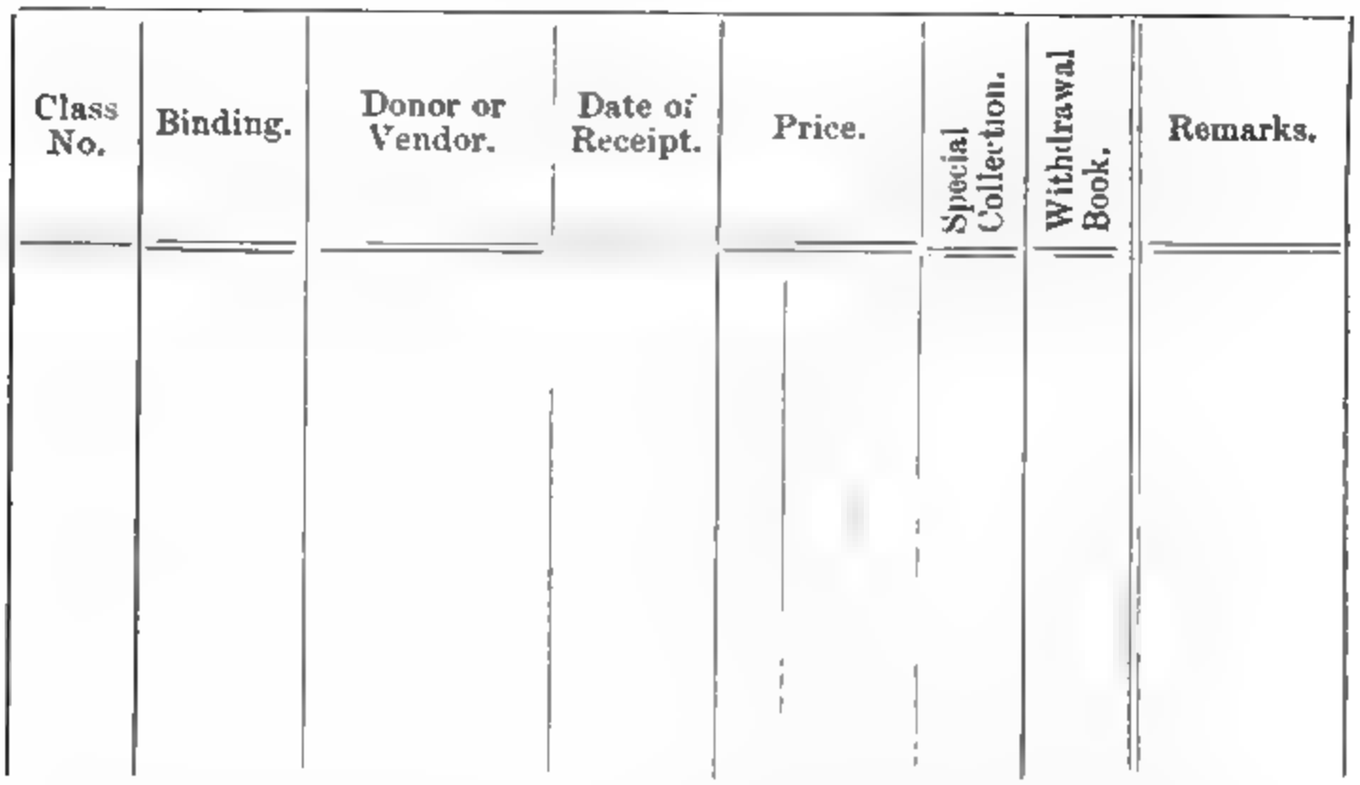


FIG. 64.—Stock Book.—Right-hand Folio (Section 230).

There does not seem to be any obvious advantage in the American plan of printing the accession numbers progressively down each page, as this renders it impossible to re-enter a new book which has been given a withdrawn number, and there is a decided waste in using up from two to a hundred lines for a single work.

231. The stock book now recommended can be adapted to any system of classification, and when used in conjunction with

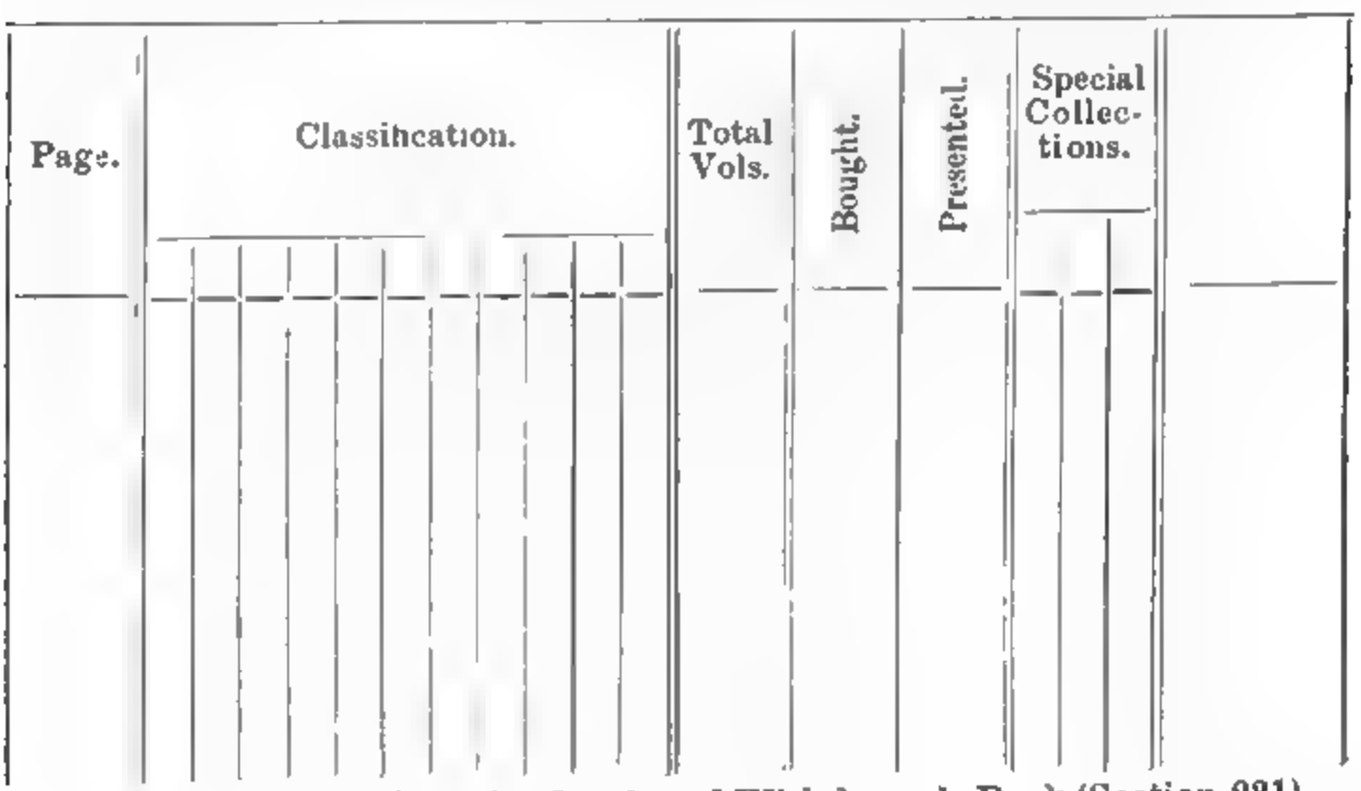


FIG. 65.—Abstract Sheet for Stock and Withdrawals Book (Section 231).

the annual abstract sheets, ruled as shown above, the exact position of the stock can be easily and correctly ascertained.

232. Every book received into the library must be entered in the stock book, and a separate book should be kept for the reference and lending departments and for every branch. Provision is made in the ruling for any needful cross-reference to the withdrawals book, and a column is used for any necessary remarks required to further elucidate the history of each book. When a book is discarded it is entered in the withdrawals book, and the page of this register is carried into the appropriate column in the stock book against the original entry. The stock is balanced annually by the withdrawals of the year being deducted from the total stock as ascertained at the end of the previous year, plus all the new additions. Withdrawn numbers should be applied to new books so as to prevent blanks in the sequence, and such books must be entered in the stock book in its chronological order, and cross-references made between the new and original entries. This will cause occasional irregularities in the progression of numbers of the "Accession Number" column, but it is of much greater importance not to allow extensive blanks to occur in this series of numbers, as it will play havoc with the charging system later on. This method of re-entering cannot be done with stock books having the accession numbers ready printed, and librarians who use this form must make up their minds to run a very irregular series of numbers.

As in many other branches of library work, the tendency in accession work is to elaborate every process instead of simplifying it. The simplest form of stock book is that in which a specially ruled counterfoil is attached to the order forms and which only provides columns for accession and class numbers, author, title and number of volumes, publisher and price. After all a stock book need only be a kind of record of origin, and not necessarily an epitome, of the catalogue and classification. What a stock book is wanted for is to answer the questions: When did a given book come; where did it come

from; what did it cost; how many books does the library possess; what are they about? There are so many records which give other particulars, that it seems a great waste of time to repeat a large number of the particulars given in some stock books.

233. The withdrawals book is the necessary complement of the stock book, and in it is entered every book permanently withdrawn from the library for any reason. The ruling given below will show better than description its scope and style:—

Date of Withdrawal.	Accession No.	Author.	Brief Title.	No. of Vols.	Class No.	Remarks.

FIG. 66.—Withdrawals Book (Section 233).

In the enumeration of the stock of a library no distinction should be made between a book and a pamphlet. Every number represents a complete item, and the mere number of pages or subject-matter should not be allowed to enter into the question. For accession purposes a pamphlet is a book or work, whether it extends to a hundred pages or consists of but four.

REFERENCE LIST OF AUTHORITIES:—

234. Book-Buying—

Methods of book-buying. (Symposium.) L. J., v. 31, p. 14.
Savage (E. A.) Co-operative book-buying. L. A. R., v. 6, p. 229.

235. Accession Methods and Processes—

Caldwell (M. H.) Gold ink marking. P. L., v. 11, p. 105.
Duncan (R.) Standardization in accession methods. L. W., v. 9, p. 83.

Jast (L. S.) Accessions: the checking of the processes. L. (N. S.), v. 1, p. 152.
Jones (G. M.) Accession department. (With bibliography.) U. S. Educ. Rept., 1892-1893, v. 1, p. 809.
Leighton (F. H.) Preparing new books and restoring old. P. L., v. 10, p. 223.
Neesham (E. W.) Accession methods. L. W., v. 8, p. 317.
Pitt (S.) Practical accession work. L. A. R., v. 7, p. 68.
Savage (E. A.) The Stock register. L. W., v. 3, p. 11.
Willcock (W. J.) Recording, replacing and disposal of worn-out books. L. W., v. 4, p. 91.

DIVISION VI.

CLASSIFICATION AND SHELF ARRANGEMENT.

CHAPTER XIII.

GENERAL PRINCIPLES.

236. General.—Classification, which is one of the most important departments of librarianship, has not received the attention from British librarians due to its value as an aid to book selection, arrangement and cataloguing. While Continental and American librarians and bibliographers have been devoting an immense deal of time, research and intelligence to the study of systematic book classification, English librarians until recently have contented themselves with methods of the most elementary kind, which, as the stream of literature broadens and deepens, become more and more inefficient and unsuitable. Roughly, the plan most in vogue in English public libraries is to establish from six to twenty main classes like A Theology, B Sciences, C Biography, D History, E Fiction, etc., and to number the books in each class consecutively as received, without regard to their subjects. The only effect of this is to bring together in one huge, undigested mass, all the novels and all the works of travel, etc., but it does not assemble in one place all the novels by one particular author, nor all the separate works on England, Yorkshire, London, etc. A more chaotic and unbusinesslike arrangement probably does not exist anywhere, in any department of life, than in a numerically arranged English public library on the plan just described. It is a mere wilderness of books dumped down on the

shelves, without regard to topic relationships, or even an elementary idea of order or consistency, and the only parallel to its unorganized confusion is the heterogeneous contents of a dust-bin or a marine store. If every business enterprise were managed and arranged with the same bold disregard for classification as the majority of English public libraries, the financial and moral collapse of all branches of human endeavour would be an assured thing in a few short years. It is true that all books *are* books, just as it is equally true that all birds *are* birds, and all fishes *are* fishes. However that may be, it is an undoubted fact that neither birds nor fishes are lumped together as objects of equal qualities and characteristics, either by naturalists, bird fanciers, poulterers, anglers or fishmongers. Each has a minute scheme of classification, whereby not only is a division made into main classes, but all species and related specimens are kept separate and specially distinguished. There is not a single profession, art, business or science, in which minute classification is not recognized as a perfectly natural and absolutely essential requirement; and it is mournful to have to record that the only places where disorder and topsy-turvydom are established and cherished—English municipal libraries—are just the very places where minute and scientific classification is most required and expected.

237. It is somewhat late to advance a plea for exact classification in English public libraries, in view of the fact that systematic schemes have been in successful practical operation in America, the leading European countries, and a few British libraries, for nearly thirty years; but the arguments in favour may be gathered from the references in Section 238. The importance of the subject has been recognized by various British librarians, among whom may be honourably named Mr. Archer and Mr. Lyster of the National Library of Ireland, and Mr. Jast of the Croydon Public Libraries. Strange, too, the first systematic account of classification schemes[1] is by a

[1] *Manual of Library Classification and Shelf Arrangement.* By James D. Brown. London, 1898.

British librarian, so that there is no lack of evidence to prove that considerable interest is manifested in the subject in Britain, and that much promise of great development in the future is evident. Journals like the *Library*, *Library World* and *Library Association Record* also devote some space to the subject, and the literature is steadily growing.

Some library authorities also make knowledge of exact classification an indispensable qualification for appointments, and the whole question is receiving greater attention every year, till, in a comparatively short time, practically every British public library of any importance will be classified on scientific principles.

238. Reference List of Authorities:—

Brown (J. D.) Manual of library classification and shelf arrangement. 1898.

—— Classification and cataloguing. L. v. 9, p. 143.

Dana (J. C.) Classification. *In his* "Library primer," p. 78.

Edwards (E.) Memoirs of libraries, 1859, v. 2, p. 761.

Graesel (A.) Classification. *In his* "Bibliothekslehre," 1902.

Jast (L. S.) Classification in public libraries. L., v. 7, p. 169.

—— Library classification. Greenwood's Year Book, 1900, p. 21.

Kephart (H.) Classification. U. S. Educ. Rept., 1892-1893, v. 1, p. 861. (Contains a bibliography.)

Richardson (E. C.) Classification: theoretical and practical. 1901. (Contains a bibliography.)

CHAPTER XIV.

SYSTEMATIC CLASSIFICATION SCHEMES.

239. General.—Quite a large number of classification schemes have been devised by Continental, American and British librarians, in which books are systematically arranged according to related topics, and marked with a notation which enables any book or subject to be readily distinguished by its number, for purposes of shelving, charging and cataloguing. All the best known of such schemes are described in Brown's *Manual of Library Classification*, London, 1898, which is, with Richardson's work, practically the only text-book on the subject. It will be sufficient to merely name the methods of Harris, Perkins and Smith, of America; Edwards and Sonnenschein, of England; Bonazzi, of Italy; and Hartwig, of Germany, which, with the well-known French scheme of Brunet, make up a very interesting collection of international contributions to the classification of books. None of these schemes have been adopted in more than one or two libraries, so that their influence is not sufficiently widespread to make any further description of their details necessary. It will be much more helpful to librarians if the chief systems of classification are mentioned which fulfil every requirement as regards notation and general adaptability to library work, and which have been put to the practical test of application in a number of different libraries. The systems in question are the Adjustable, Decimal, Expansive, and Subject, the first and last being English schemes and the two others American. They have all been extensively adopted, and each exists as a separate printed work, with an index; a vital part of any method of classifica-

tion. Unprinted schemes, or those of merely theoretical interest, have very little practical value, and though every librarian has his own ideas of classification, and generally manages to graft them on to the scheme of some other person, and even to nibble away at his original, it is the best and wisest course to adopt a complete, printed and accessible scheme with as little modification as possible.

240. Adjustable Classification.—This is an English scheme introduced in 1898, and especially designed for the needs of British municipal libraries. It is arranged in a series of independent classes, and instead of the main divisions being fixed in a numerical sequence, qualified by sectional sub-numbers, they are numbered in one series of sections of equal value. The even numbers only are used in the first issue of the scheme, thus allowing for it being doubled. The scheme is adapted to the class of books most often to be found in the smaller British municipal libraries, and the geographical sections are worked out more fully than usual.

The main classes of the ADJUSTABLE CLASSIFICATION are as follows:—

CLASS A—SCIENCE.

2-8 General.
10-28 Biology.
30-50 Zoology, Man.
52-68 „ Animal.
70 Vertebrates.
72-104 Mammals.
106-128 Birds.
130-138 Reptiles.
140 Amphibians.
142-148 Fishes.
150 Invertebrates.
152 Crustacea.
154 Arachnida.
156 Myriapoda.
158-180 Insects.
182 Molluscs.
184-192 Brachiopoda, Echinoderma, etc.
194 Protozoa.
196-222 Botany.
224-248 Geology.
250-262 Chemistry.
264-288 Physics.
290-302 Physiography.
304-320 Astronomy.
322-350 Mathematics.
352-362 Occult Sciences.

CLASS B—USEFUL ARTS.

2-6 General.
8-18 Inventions.
20 Recipes.
22-38 Agriculture.
40-58 Gardening.
60-74 Building.
76-80 Engineering, general.

82-86 Engineering, Aerial.
88-92 „ Civil.
94-102 „ Electrical.
104-112 „ Mechanical.
114-142 „ Military.
144-168 „ Naval.
170-190 „ Mining.
192-196 „ Railway.
198-214 „ Steam and Gas.
216-238 Metallurgy.
240-242 Manufactures, general.
244-272 Book Production.
274-296 Chemical Trades.
298 Clothing.
300-304 Coach-building.
306-312 Fisheries.
314-316 Food Production.
318-324 Gas Production.
326-328 Glass.
330-334 Leather.
336-374 Metal-working.
376-378 Musical Instruments.
380-386 Pottery.
388-402 Textiles.
404-420 Wood-working.
422 Shopkeepers' Manuals.
424-480 Medical Science.
482-486 Veterinary Medicine.
488-508 Household Arts.

Class C—Fine and Recreative Arts.

2-16 Fine Arts, general.
18-54 Painting.
56-68 Drawing.
70-102 Decoration.
104-140 Engraving, etc.
142-154 Photography.
156-160 Writing.
162-166 Shorthand.
168-186 Collecting.
188-236 Architecture.
238-250 Sculpture.
252-288 Music, general, history, etc.
292-424 „ Instruments.
426-434 Music, Voice.
436 „ Operas.
438-440 „ Oratorios and Cantatas.
442-462 „ Church.
464-488 „ Vocal and Songs.
490-492 Recreative Arts.
494-658 Games and Sports.

Class D—Social Science.

2-8 General.
10-92 Manners, Customs, etc.
94-150 Political Economy.
152-272 Government and Politics.
274-354 Law.
356-398 Commerce, Finance.
400-424 Communications.
426-484 Education.

Class E—Philosophy and Religion.

2-18 Philosophy, general.
20-24 Logic, etc.
26-36 Mental Physiology, etc.
38 Ethics.
42 Religion, general.
44-80 Theology, general.
82-152 Bible.
154-166 Fathers, Councils, etc.
170-284 Christianity and its Churches.
286-384 Christian Theology.
386-442 Non-Christian Religions.
444-470 Mythology and Folk-lore.

Class F—History and Geography.

2-26 History, general.
28-62 Ancient and Dispersed Nations.
64-66 Modern History, general.
68-86 Geography, general.
88-196 „ Africa.

198-452 Geography, America.
454-559 ,, Asia.
560-1,258 ,, Europe.
1,260-1,350 ,, Oceania.
1,352-1,964 ,, Polar Regions.

CLASS G—BIOGRAPHY.

2 General.
4-28 National.
30-86 Class.
88 Individual Biography.
90-102 Genealogy, etc.
104-116 Heraldry.

CLASS H—LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE.

2-16 Language, general.
18-26 ,, Africa.
28-34 ,, America.
36-108 ,, Asia.
110-294 ,, Europe.
296-302 ,, Polynesia, etc.
304-312 Names.
314-324 Oratory, etc.
326-362 Literary History.
364-376 Bibliography.
378-404 Libraries, etc.

CLASS J—POETRY AND DRAMA.

2-8 Poetry, general.
10-44 ,, National Collections.
46-60 ,, Class Collections.
62 ,, Individual authors.
64-76 ,, Drama, general.
78-80 ,, Collections.
82 ,, Individual authors.

CLASS K—PROSE FICTION.

2-10 History and Collections.
12 Individual authors.
14-18 Juvenile Fiction.

CLASS L—MISCELLANEOUS.

2-32 Encyclopædias, Periodicals, Essays, etc.
34 Composite Works (or books treating of more than three definite topics).

This scheme is published separately as *Adjustable Classification for Libraries, with Index*, by James D. Brown, London, 1898.

241. Decimal Classification.—Invented by Mr. Melvil Dewey in 1873-1876, and since greatly enlarged and improved. As indicated by its name, the system is divided into groups of ten, and the result is to obtain an admirable notation.

Its chief divisions are as follows :—

000 GENERAL WORKS.

010 Bibliography.
020 Library Economy.
030 General Cyclopædias.
040 ,, Collections.
050 ,, Periodicals.
060 ,, Societies.
070 Newspapers.
080 Special Libraries.
090 Book Rarities.

100 PHILOSOPHY.

110 Metaphysics.
120 ,, Special Topics.

130 Mind and Body.
140 Philosophical Systems.
150 Mental Faculties, Psychology.
160 Logic.
170 Ethics.
180 Ancient Philosophers.
190 Modern ,,

200 RELIGION.

210 Natural Theology.
220 Bible.
230 Doctrinal Theology.
240 Devotional and Practical.
250 Homiletic, Pastoral, etc.
260 Church Institutions.
270 Religious History.
280 Christian Churches and Sects.
290 Non-Christian Religions.

300 SOCIOLOGY.

310 Statistics.
320 Political Science.
330 ,, Economy.
340 Law.
350 Administration.
360 Associations.
370 Education.
380 Commerce, etc.
390 Customs, Costumes, Folk-lore.

400 PHILOLOGY.

410 Comparative.
420 English.
430 German.
440 French.
450 Italian.
460 Spanish.
470 Latin.
480 Greek.
490 Minor Languages.

500 NATURAL SCIENCE.

510 Mathematics.
520 Astronomy.
530 Physics.
540 Chemistry.
550 Geology.
560 Paleontology.
570 Biology.
580 Botany.
590 Zoology.

600 USEFUL ARTS.

610 Medicine.
620 Engineering.
630 Agriculture.
640 Domestic Economy.
650 Communications.
660 Chemical Technology.
670 Manufactures.
680 Mechanic Trades.
690 Building.

700 FINE ARTS.

710 Landscape Gardening.
720 Architecture.
730 Sculpture.
740 Drawing, Decoration.
750 Painting.
760 Engraving.
770 Photography.
780 Music.
790 Amusements.

800 LITERATURE.

810 American.
820 English.
830 German.
840 French.
850 Italian.
860 Spanish.
870 Latin.

880 Greek.
890 Minor Languages.

900 History.

910 Geography and Description.
920 Biography.
930 Ancient History.

940 Europe.
950 Asia.
960 Africa.
970 N. America.
980 S. America.
990 Oceanica and Polar Regions.

} Modern.

This scheme is published separately as *Tables and Index of the Decimal Classification and relative Index for arranging and cataloguing Libraries, Clippings, Notes, etc.*, by Melvil Dewey, Boston, fifth edition, and has been largely expanded by the Institut International de Bibliographie, Brussels.

242. Expansive Classification.—This system was devised by Mr. C. A. Cutter, a well-known American librarian, and author of the code of *Rules for a Dictionary Catalogue*, which has been a text-book for many years. The Expansive Classification has not been adopted to any extent in Britain, but is printed in a series of seven classifications of progressive fulness, and completely indexed, and so becomes one of the methods to be studied.

An outline of the scheme follows :—

A	Generalia
A	General works
Ae	General encyclopedias
Ap	General periodicals
Ar	Reference works
As	General societies
B–D	Spiritual sciences
B	Philosophy
Ba–Bf	National philosophies and Systems of philosophy
Bg	Metaphysics
Bh	Logic
Bi	Psychology
Bm	Moral philosophy
Br	Religion, Natural theology
Bt	Religions
Bu	Folk-lore
Ca	Judaism
Cb	Bible
Cc	Christianity
Cce	Patristics
Ce	Apologetics, Evidences
Cf	Doctrinal theology
Ck	Ethical theology
Cp	Ritual theology and Church polity
Cx	Pastoral theology
Cz	Sermons
D	Ecclesiastical history
Dk	Particular churches and sects

E–G Historical sciences

E Biography and Portraits

F–Fz History

F Universal history
F02 Ancient history
F03 Modern history
F04 Mediæval history
F11–F99 History of single countries (using local list)
Fa–Fw Allied studies, as Chronology, Philosophy of history, History of civilization, Antiquities, Numismatics, Chivalry, Heraldry

G Geography, Travels

G11–G99 Single countries (using local list)
Ga Ancient geography
Gf Surveying and Mapmaking
Gz Maps

H–K Social sciences

Hb Statistics
Hc Economics
He Production
Hf Labour
Hi Slavery
Hj Transportation
Hk Distribution, Commerce
Hm Money
Hn Banking
Hr Private finance
Ht Taxation and Public finance
Hu Tariff
Hw Property, Capital
Hz Consumption
I Demotics, Sociology
Ic Crime
Ig Charity
Ih Providence
Ik Education
J Civics, Government, Political science
Ju Constitutions and Politics
K Legislation and Law
Kd Public Documents

L–Q Natural sciences

L General works, Metrics

Lb–Lg Number and space

Lb Mathematics

Lh–Lr Matter and force

Lh Physics
Lo Chemistry
Lr Astronomy

M–Q Matter and life

M Natural history
Mg Geology, incl. Mineralogy, Crystalography, Physical geography, Meteorology, Paleontology
My Biology
N Botany
Cryptogams
Phanerogams
O Zoology
Invertebrates
P Vertebrates
Pg Mammals
Pw Anthropology, Ethnology, Ethnography
Q Medicine

R–Z Arts

R General works, Exhibitions, Patents

Rd–Rg Extractive arts

Rd Mining

Re Metallurgy

Rf Agriculture

Rh Horticulture

Ri Silviculture

Rj Animaliculture

Rq Chemic arts

Rt Electric arts

Ry Domestic arts

Rz Food and Cookery

S Constructive arts, Engineering

Sg Building

Sj Sanitary engineering

Sl Hydraulic engineering

St Transportation and Communication

T Fabricative arts, Machinery, Manufacturing and Handicrafts

U Protective arts, *i.e*, Military and Naval Arts, Life-preserving, Fire-fighting

V Athletic and Recreative arts, Sports and Games

Vs Gymnastics

Vt Theatre

Vv Music

W Fine arts, plastic and graphic

We Landscape gardening

Wf Architecture

Wk Casting, Baking, Firing

Wm Drawing

Wp Painting

Wq Engraving

Wr Photography

Ws Decorative arts, including Costume

X–Yf Communicative arts (by language)

X Philology

X Inscriptions

X Language

Y Literature

Yf English Fiction

Z Book arts (making and use of books)

Za–Zk Production

Za Authorship

Zb Rhetoric

Zd Writing

Zh Printing

Zk Binding

Zl Distribution (Publishing and Bookselling)

Zp Storage and Use (Libraries)

Zu Description (Zu Bibliography; Zx Selection of reading; Zy Literary history; Zz National bibliography)

This scheme is published separately as *Expansive Classification*, by C. A. Cutter, Boston, 1891, etc., several sections.

243. Subject Classification.—This is the latest English system, and also the one most fully set out and indexed, and is

selected for detailed notice as being most generally applicable to British libraries of all kinds. It is based on the principle of placing all topics in a logical sequence; of keeping applications of theory as close as possible to the foundation theory; and of providing one place only for each important topic. The complications and intersections of human knowledge prevent anything more than an approximation to this ideal, but it has been found in actual practice to be a classification scheme which works easily and harmoniously.

The following extracts from the introduction will serve to give an idea of the principle on which the system is based :—

"THE ORDER OF THE MAIN CLASSES.—The reasons which determined the adoption of a certain sequence of classes in this system may be briefly set forth here, instead of any argument or attempt to justify the order. The battle which has raged, and is still raging, among scientists, as to the best and most desirable order in which to arrange the great branches of human knowledge in order to produce a 'hierarchy,' must deter a non-scientific classifier from arguing on such a complicated and difficult topic. It will, therefore, suffice if I briefly describe the main classes in their order and give reasons why they were assigned to the places they occupy.

"A GENERALIA.—The divisions of this main class comprise most of the rules, methods and factors which are of general application, and which qualify or pervade every branch of science, industry or human study. They are universal and pervasive, and cannot be logically assigned to any other single main class as peculiar or germane to it.

"B, C, D PHYSICAL SCIENCES.—Matter, force, motion and their applications are assumed to precede life and mind, and for that reason the material side of science, with its applications, has been selected as a foundation main class on which to construct the system.

"E, F BIOLOGICAL SCIENCE.—Life and its forms, arising out of matter, occupy the second place among the main classes, and here are put general biological theories and facts, followed

by plant and animal life, each in an ascending order from low to high forms of organization.

"G, H Ethnological and Medical Science.—Human life, its varieties, physical history, disorders and recreations, follows naturally as a higher development of plant and animal life, and completes the biological chain.

"I Economic Biology and Domestic Arts.—The applications of plant and animal life to human needs, placed midway between the physical and mental attributes of man as indicating the primitive exercise of mind, and to assemble in one sequence the chief biological subjects. As a matter of practical convenience, rather than logical necessity, it was thought better to keep composite subjects like Agriculture, Clothing, Foods, etc. —involving questions of origin, use and manufacture—all in one place, close to the main classes from which they are derived, rather than to distribute them more closely at Botany or Zoology.

"J, K Philosophy and Religion.—Mental attributes, order and beliefs of human life, following naturally from its physical basis, and primitive manifestation in the instinct of procuring food and clothing.

"L Social and Political Science.—Social order and laws of human life. Placed here because, although society or family and other tribal organizations may have preceded religion, mind as embodied in philosophy must have preceded both.

"M Language and Literature.—Communication and recording in human life. The spoken, written and printed word, which grew as a necessity out of the primitive operations of mind.

"N Literary Forms.—The products of communication and recording in human life in their more imaginative forms; placed here on the ground that fable probably preceded more formal history.

"O—X History, Geography, Biography.—The actions, records and descriptions of human life and its dwelling-place.

Arranged in this order and at this place because of their intimate connexion. Geography, although logically related to Physiography and Biography to Ethnology, are, nevertheless, as a matter of practical utility, and because of the literature actually existing, more naturally grouped here than separated.

"The order of the classes may, therefore, be briefly described as expressing :—

1. Matter.
2. Life.
3. Mind.
4. Record." [1]

The only serious objection which has been urged against this scheme is the inclusion of Education, Logic, Mathematics, and the Graphic and Plastic Arts in Generalia. This course is, however, fully justified by the somewhat amusing circumstance, that the critics are unable to agree among themselves as to the exact logical place of any of the series. While one insists that Logic should be placed in Philosophy, he is bound to admit that it ought not to be separated from Mathematics, while on the other hand he cannot allow arithmetic, book-keeping and geometry to invade the sacred temple of the philosophers. Education is even a greater stumbling-block. It is variously assigned to Psychology, Sociology, Philology and Ethnology by different critics, and Fine Arts is equally perplexing. In actual practice in a library, there is really no inconvenience felt in connexion with the distribution of any of these classes, and as they do not originate naturally from any of the other main divisions, but qualify and pervade the whole of them like an encyclopædia, or other general work, it will be found best to retain them where they are. The other important features of this system are described below.

THE CATEGORICAL TABLES form an important feature, whereby a separate series of forms, phases and other qualifying factors are provided, which can be applied to every subject, and so relieve the main tables from congestion. They are ap-

[1] From *Subject Classification*, by James Duff Brown, 1906, pp. 11-13.

plicable to the very largest libraries, and give ample means of subdividing any topic, however large it may be. They can also be used with other systems of classification, as they are independent of the main tables, and form a series of parallel numbers by which the classification numbers can be themselves classified. For example, a library may have 1,000 books on a subject like Architecture in general, to all of which the simple number B300 would be applied. By adding the qualifying numbers from the Categorical Tables, which appear after a point, and are invariably the same when applied to any subject, the following sub-classification would result, which has the effect of assembling all related forms of books together :—

B300	Architecture,	General
B300·1	—	Bibliography
B300·2	—	Dictionaries
B300·3	—	Textbooks, Systematic
B300·4	—	— Popular
B300·6	—	Societies
B300·7	—	Periodicals
B300·10	—	History

and so on.

If, in addition to those general works, the library possessed several hundreds of books on Building Construction, B305, these would be subdivided in exactly the same manner, as would also any subdivision of the same topic, such as Foundations, Walls, Roofs, etc. :—

B305·1	Building	Construction,	Bibliography
B305·3	—	—	Textbooks, Systematic
B305·10	—	—	History
B329·1	Roofs,	Bibliography	

These categorical tables are therefore of universal application, and as they contain nearly one thousand qualifying forms, phases, etc., it will be seen that their use will greatly simplify the practical work of classification.

As will be seen by the above examples, the symbols of the Notation are perfectly simple combinations of letters and numbers. By treating the numbers decimally, it is possible to

intercalate as many new ones as desired between any of the existing numbers, thus providing an infinity of places.

The Index is very extensive in the number of subject-words it contains, and comprises practically every topic likely to be encountered in ordinary practice. The Classification Tables themselves provide places somewhere for every remote subject, and the Introduction describes how such out-of-the way matters are to be treated.

It is impossible to set forth all the features of this system of classification—its elaborate series of *biographical numbers* for arranging Fiction, Poetry and other alphabetical classes; its new system of short *date-marks;* its rules for the *arrangement of special subjects*, authors, etc.; and its notes on the simplification of the whole subject of book classification. Reference can only be made to the Summary Table of Main Classes for an idea of the size and style of the book.

SUMMARY TABLE OF MAIN CLASSES, WITH ABRIDGED NOTATION.

Main Classes.

A—Generalia	L—Social and Political Science
B–D—Physical Science	M—Language and Literature
E–F—Biological Science	N—Literary Forms, Fiction, Poetry
G–H—Ethnology, Medicine	
I—Economic Biology, Domestic Arts	O–W—History and Geography
J–K—Philosophy and Religion	X—Biography

A Generalia	B, C, D Physical Science
A0 Generalia	B0 Physics, Dynamics
A1 Education	B1 Mechanical engineering
A3 Logic	B2 Civil engineering
A4 Mathematics	B3 Architecture
A5 Geometry	B5 Railways, Vehicles
A6 Graphic and Plastic Arts	B6 Transport, Shipbuilding
A9 General Science	B8 Naval and Military science
	C0 Electricity

C1 Optics
C2 Heat
C3 Acoustics
C4 Music
C8 Astronomy
D0 Physiography
D1 Hydrography, Hydrostatics
D2 Meteorology, Pneumatics
D3 Geology, Petrology
D4 Crystallography, Mineralogy
D6 Metallurgy, Mining, Metal trades
D7 Chemistry
D9 Chemical technology

E, F Biological Science

E0 Biology
E1 Botany
E2 Cryptogams
E3 Phanerogams
F0 Zoology
F1 Metazoa
F2 Mollusca
F3 Insecta
F4 Pisces (Fishes)
F5 Reptilia
F6 Aves (Birds)
F7 Mammalia

G, H Ethnology and Medicine

G0 Ethnology
G2 Human Anatomy and Physiology
G3 Pathology
G4 Materia medica
G5 Therapeutics
G6 Functions, Organs, Osteology
G7 Nervous system
G8 Sensory system
G9 Respiratory system
H0 Blood and Circulation
H1 Digestive system
H2 Urinary system
H3 Reproductive system
H4 Skin and Hair
H5 Parasitical and Infectious diseases
H6 Ambulance, Hospitals, Hygiene
H7 Physical Training and Exercises
H8 Field sports
H9 Recreative arts

I Economic Biology, Domestic Arts

I0 Agriculture, Dairy farming
I1 Veterinary medicine
I2 Milling, Gardening, Forestry
I3 Wood-working
I4 Textile manufactures
I5 Clothing trades
I6 Costume. Jewellery
I7 Vegetable and Animal products
I8 Foods and Beverages
I9 Gastronomy. Domestic economy

J, K Philosophy and Religion

J0 Metaphysics
J1 Æsthetics, Psychology
J2 Ethics
J3 Philosophy
J4 Theology, Religion, general
J5 Mythology, Folk-lore

J6 Church doctrines
J7 Fasts and Festivals
J8 Church Government
K0 Non-Christian churches
K1 Bible
K3 Christology
K4 Early and Eastern Christian churches
K5 Monachism
K6 Roman Catholicism
K7 Protestantism. Episcopacy
K8 Nonconformist churches
K9 Presbyterian and other churches

L Social and Political Science

L0 Social science
L1 Political economy
L2 Government
L3 Central and Local administration
L4 Law
L5 Trials. Actions
L6 Criminology. Penology
L7 Contracts. Property
L8 Commerce and Trade
L9 Finance

M Language and Literature

M0 Language, general
M1 Literature, general
M2 African Languages and Literature
M2-3 Asiatic Languages and Literature
M3 Malayan-Polynesian Literature
M4 European (Latin, etc.) Literature
M5 European (Teutonic)
M6 American
M7 Palæography. Bibliography
M8 Printing, Bookbinding
M9 Library economy

N Literary Forms

N0 Fiction
N1 Poetry
N2 Drama
N3 Essays and Miscellanea

O—W History and Geography

O0 Universal history
O1 Archæology
O2 Universal geography
O3 Africa, North
O4 Egypt
O5 East Africa
O6 Central Africa
O7 South Africa
O8 West Africa
O9 African Islands

P Oceania and Asia

P0 Australasia
P1 Polynesia, Micronesia, etc.
P2 Malaysia
P29 Asia
P3 Japan
P4 China
P5 Farther India. Malay States
P8 India

P88 Afghanistan
P9 Persia

Q, R Europe (South, Latin, etc.)

Q0 Europe, general
Q1 Turkey in Europe
Q12 Turkey in Asia
Q2 Palestine, Arabia
Q3 Greece
Q4 Balkan States
Q5 Italy
R0 France
R6 Spain
R8 Portugal

S, T Europe (North, Teutonic, Slavonic)

S0 Russia in Europe
S15 Poland
S2 Finland
S25 Russia in Asia
S3 Austria
S34 Bohemia
S4 Hungary
S5 Switzerland
S6 Germany
T0 Netherlands
T1 Holland
T2 Belgium
T5 Denmark
T6 Norway
T8 Sweden

U, V British Islands

U0 Ireland
U2 Wales
U3 England
V0 Scotland
V5 United Kingdom
V6 British Empire

W America

W0 America, general
W02 Canada
W1 United States
W5 Mexico
W6 Central America
W63 West Indies
W7 South America
W72 Brazil
W76 Peru
W78 Paraguay
W8 Argentina
W83 Chili
W9 Polar Regions

X Biography

X0 Collective and Class
X08 Heraldry
X2 Portraits
X3 Individual Biography

CHAPTER XV.

PRACTICAL APPLICATION.

244. Numbers.—The class letters and numbers of all books should be written in the inside, preferably on the back or front of the title-page, and should also be carried on to the labels, book-cards and all other records. On the outside the class letters and numbers may be lettered in gilt or written on a suitable tag, which must be firmly pasted on the back about one inch and a half from the foot. It is best to place numbers at a point of the backs of books to ensure a regular and uniform marking. There is a considerable difference in rapidly scanning a level line of numbers and one which goes jumping about according to varying heights of volumes.

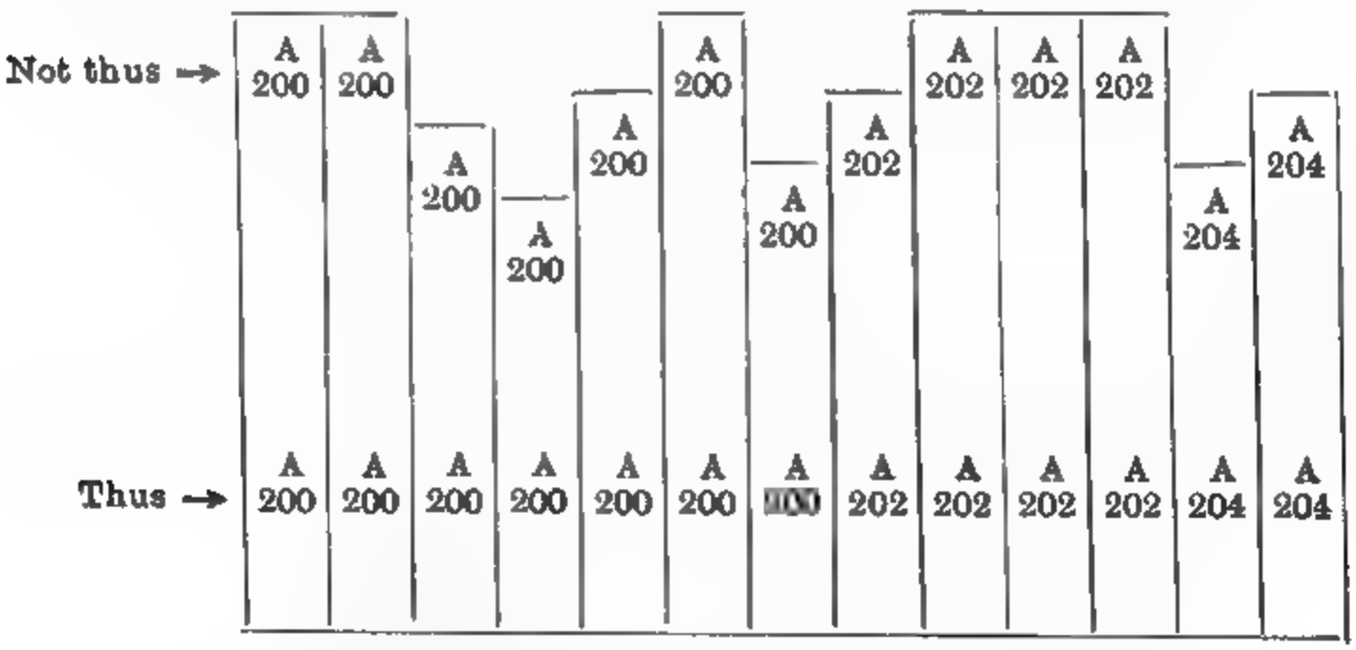


FIG. 67.—Lettering of Class Numbers (Section 244).

245. In the American classification systems, in which the class numbers are used for charging and all other purposes, it is necessary to provide a series of elaborate subsidiary marks to

distinguish book from book in the same subdivision. Thus, in the Decimal scheme, 621·18 is the number for books on boilers. If there are six books on this topic, some distinction must be used in charging to enable the librarian to know which book has been issued. Mr. Cutter has devised a table for this purpose, which is known as the "Cutter Author Marks," by which surnames are arranged according to their initials and qualified by a number thus:—

Abbott = Ab2.	Gardiner = G16.
Acland = Ac6.	Gerry = G36.
Cook = C77.	Gilman = G42.
Cousin = C83.	Shock = Sh8.
Crabb = C84.	

The six books on boilers would accordingly be distinguished by receiving these author marks, and the numbers might become:—

621·18 Ab2	. .	Abbott on Boilers.
621·18 C83	. .	Cousin ,,
621·18 G16	. .	Gardiner ,,
621·18 Sh8	. .	Shock ,,

In the Subject Classification these books when given the number for boilers, C210, could be further distinguished by the numbers of the biographical tables, thus:—

$\frac{C210}{3011}$	. . .	Abbott on Boilers.
$\frac{C210}{3669}$	. . .	Cousin ,,
$\frac{C210}{4565}$	. . .	Gardiner ,,
$\frac{C210}{7863}$	. . .	Shock ,,

But this elaboration, which has been imitated in England by Messrs. Jast, Anderson and others,[1] is really not required if

[1] *Library World*, 1900, pp. 120, 150, and 1901, p. 279.

books are properly lettered and the accession or even class numbers are used for charging purposes.

246. The binder's lettering is generally quite sufficient to enable any book to be quickly found, even when one of fifty, provided the books are kept in alphabetical order of authors' names.

Any reader or assistant can find a given author in an alphabetical sequence like that shown, or even if it were considerably disordered, without the slightest trouble; whereas in an open-access library it would be difficult for a reader to understand the meaning of letters when translated into figures. Every book has an individuality of its own, and it is better not to hide this under a lot of eccentric-looking numbers which only give

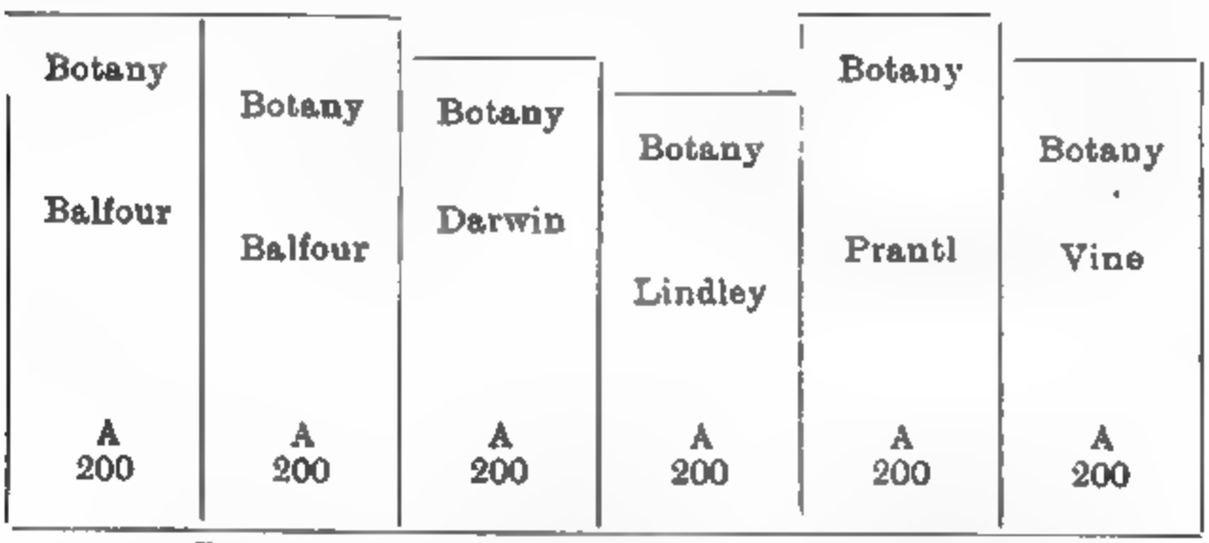


Fig. 68.—Book-Marking Authors (Section 246).

in shorthand form what the book's own lettering gives in full. Shelf arrangement should, therefore, be according to the ordinary class numbers, and charging by means of accession or class numbers.

247. **Book and Shelf Marking.**—To prevent trouble it is better to have the class numbers stamped on the backs of books at once rather than to rely on tags or labels, which have a tendency to peel off on the slightest provocation. In some open-access libraries using ordinary gilt lettering, a subsidiary marking has been adopted to prevent misplacement and aid replacement.

These marks are simple round spots of coloured enamel painted on the backs of the books, and they effectually prevent shelf being mixed with shelf and tier with tier. There are eight

shelves in a tier, and eight distinctive colours are used, so that no colour is repeated in the same tier, and they are varied in every succeeding tier, so that adjoining shelves will not correspond in the colour of their marking. As a further precaution, the class marks are placed at different heights on the backs of the books in each tier, so that, even if a red-marked book from Tier 1 were placed among the red-marked books of Tier 3, there would still be a distinction. Of course the same level is maintained for each tier, by means of gauges, and the progression of colours is observed. When a book moves forward to another

Colours.		
Tier 1.	Tier 2.	Tier 3.
Blue	Yellow	Grey
Red	Mauve	Buff
Green	White	Blue
Yellow	Grey	Red
Mauve	Buff	Green
White	Blue	Yellow
Grey	Red	Mauve
Buff	Green	White

Fig. 69.—Colour Marking of Books.

shelf, the mark is painted over with the new colour, and when the book is moved to another tier, the mark is carefully scraped out and altered to suit the new location. As movement is not extensive in ordinary libraries, this alteration is only an occasional duty. The class numbers maintain the topic order on the shelves, and so the most common method of open-access shelf marking is complete. It has been argued that the class letters and numbers are all-sufficient to maintain order in a library which allows readers to go to the shelves, but on this point experience varies. At any rate, there is no harm in taking

simple precautions of this kind, which certainly possess the great advantage that if a book is misplaced it can be noticed instantly and rectified. Uniform marks require closer scrutiny, the use

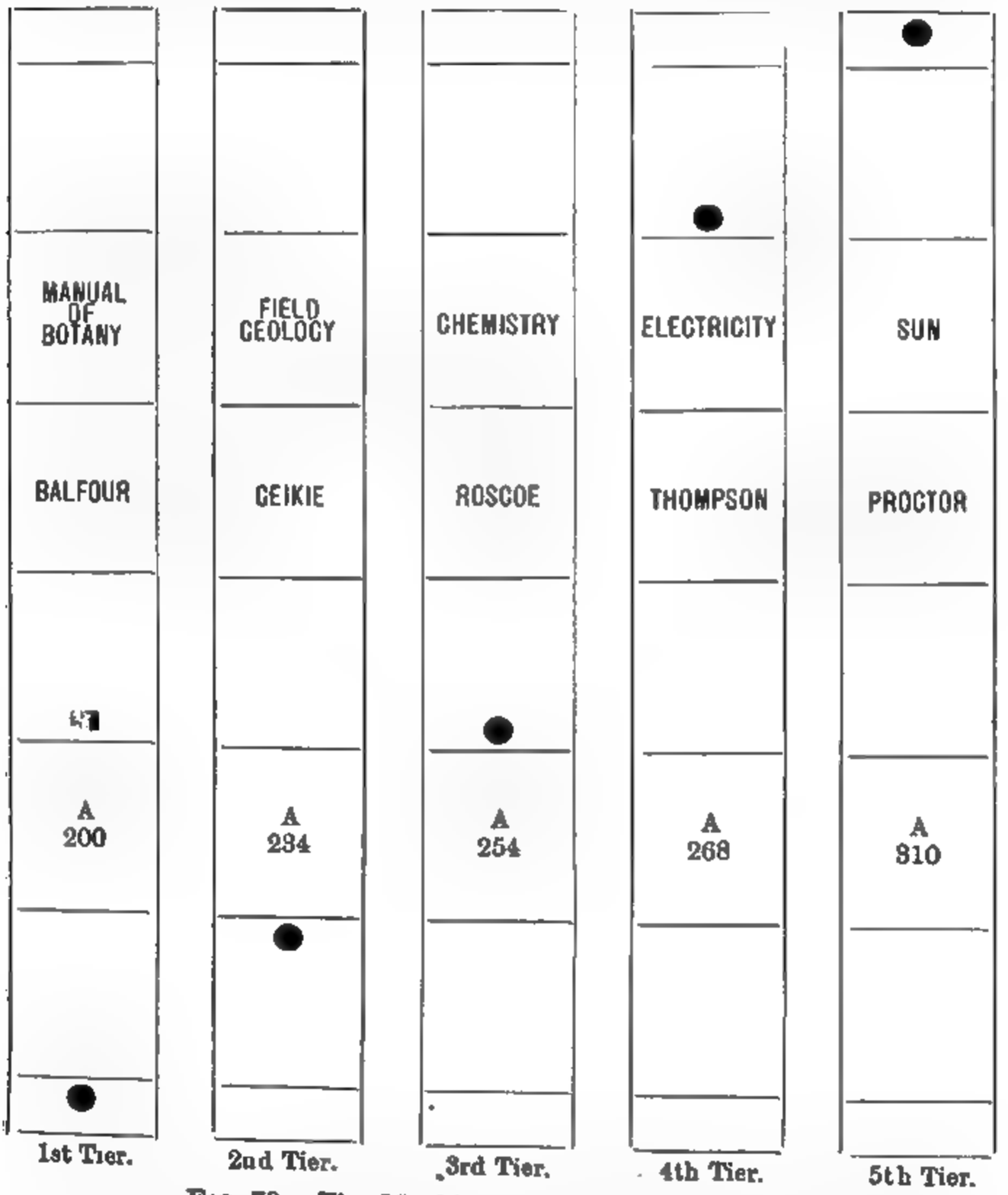


FIG. 70.—Tier Marking of Books (Section 247).

of colours demands but a casual glance. In closely classified libraries where there is no public access to the shelves, simple class numbers ought to be sufficient for staff purposes. The only additional point is that, perhaps, the accession numbers

should also figure on the backs of the books, especially if an indicator is used for charging in the lending department.

248. In classified libraries it is well to thoroughly label the shelves, whether open to the public or not. A series of bold

FIG. 71.—Shelf Front with Class Divisions and Number (Section 248).

class labels on the top of each case, and plenty of topic labels on the shelves, together with the progressive class numbers boldly printed, and fixed to the end of each shelf, will be found a very great help to understanding the classification and finding

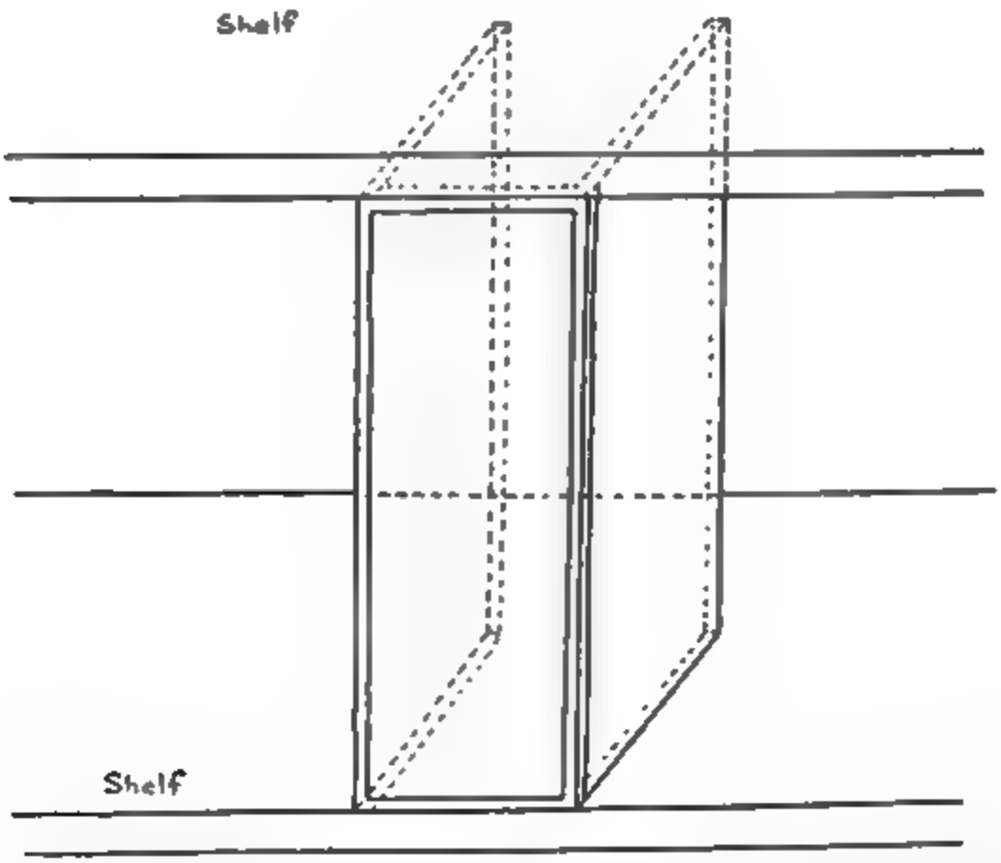


FIG. 72.—Tier Guide Showing Construction (Section 248).

the books. Shelf topic and number labels can be printed by the staff with an ordinary rubber-printing or sign-writing apparatus, and they can be fixed to the shelves by means of the label-holders mentioned in Section 253. For class numbers on the shelf-

ends, the xylonite label-holders will be found most economical and convenient, as they can be cut into inch widths. The above figure (Fig. 71) of a shelf-front with labels will give some idea of the application of these marks. The class number of the first or last topic only need be given. A method of guiding by tiers instead of by shelves is described in the

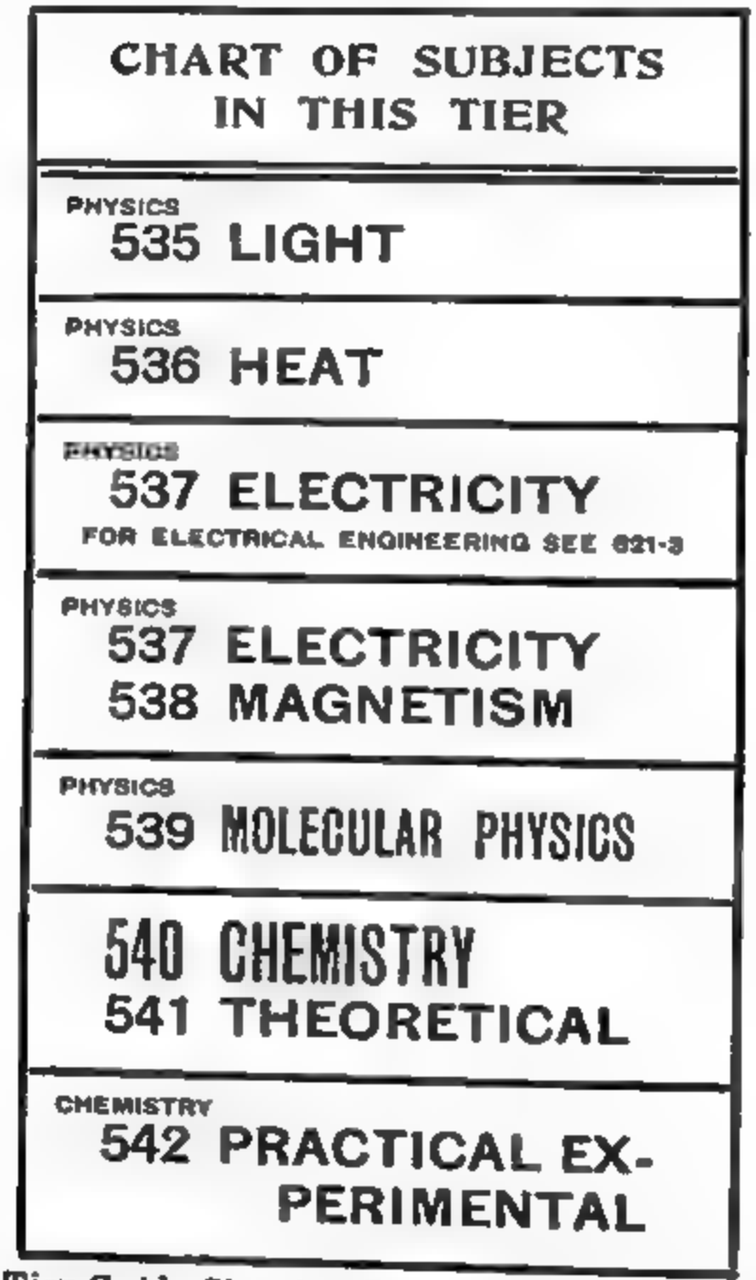


FIG. 73.—Tier Guide Showing Lettering of Front (Section 248).

Library World (Nov. 1904) and is one of many experiments which have been made with shelf guiding. The illustrations (Figs. 72-73) will show much better than words the appearance and possibilities of this system. Another form is illustrated below (Fig. 74) and shows a class label for indicating the chief contents of a main class. The illustration of an open-

access lending library given below (Fig. 75) shows the system of press guides used at the North Islington Library, which in practice has been found very effective.

249. Shelf Register.—The shelf register is a record of the books as they stand on the shelves, and is the main guide used in stock-taking and otherwise checking the books. Cards are sometimes used for this purpose, each work being entered on a separate card, the whole being arranged in trays in the order of the classification. This is not such a convenient method as the plan of using shelf-register sheets which occupy very little space and are more economical than other methods. Instead of using a separate sheet for each book, a single sheet is used for each

A

GENERALIA.

000 GENERAL	500 GEOMETRY
100 EDUCATION	600 GRAPHIC AND PLASTIC ARTS
300 LOGIC	900 GENERAL SCIENCE
400 MATHEMATICS	

For Special Subjects *see* Index to Subject Classification.

FIG. 74.—Class Guide (Section 248).

class division or subdivision. The sheet is headed, as shown in the subjoined ruling, with the class letter and number, and the books in the section are entered in author-alphabetical order to begin with, afterwards just as books are added (Fig. 76).

The narrow columns are reserved for checking the shelves annually or oftener as may be thought desirable. The date of check is written at the top, and the presence of the book indicated by a tick. In some open-access libraries stock is taken of the shelves twice in a year by means of these sheets. Missing books are not ticked, but noted for further search in the charging system and other records. When they turn up they are then ticked off. The sheets must be collated periodically, and any permanently missing books noted and entered in a

special book ruled to show author and title, date missing, and

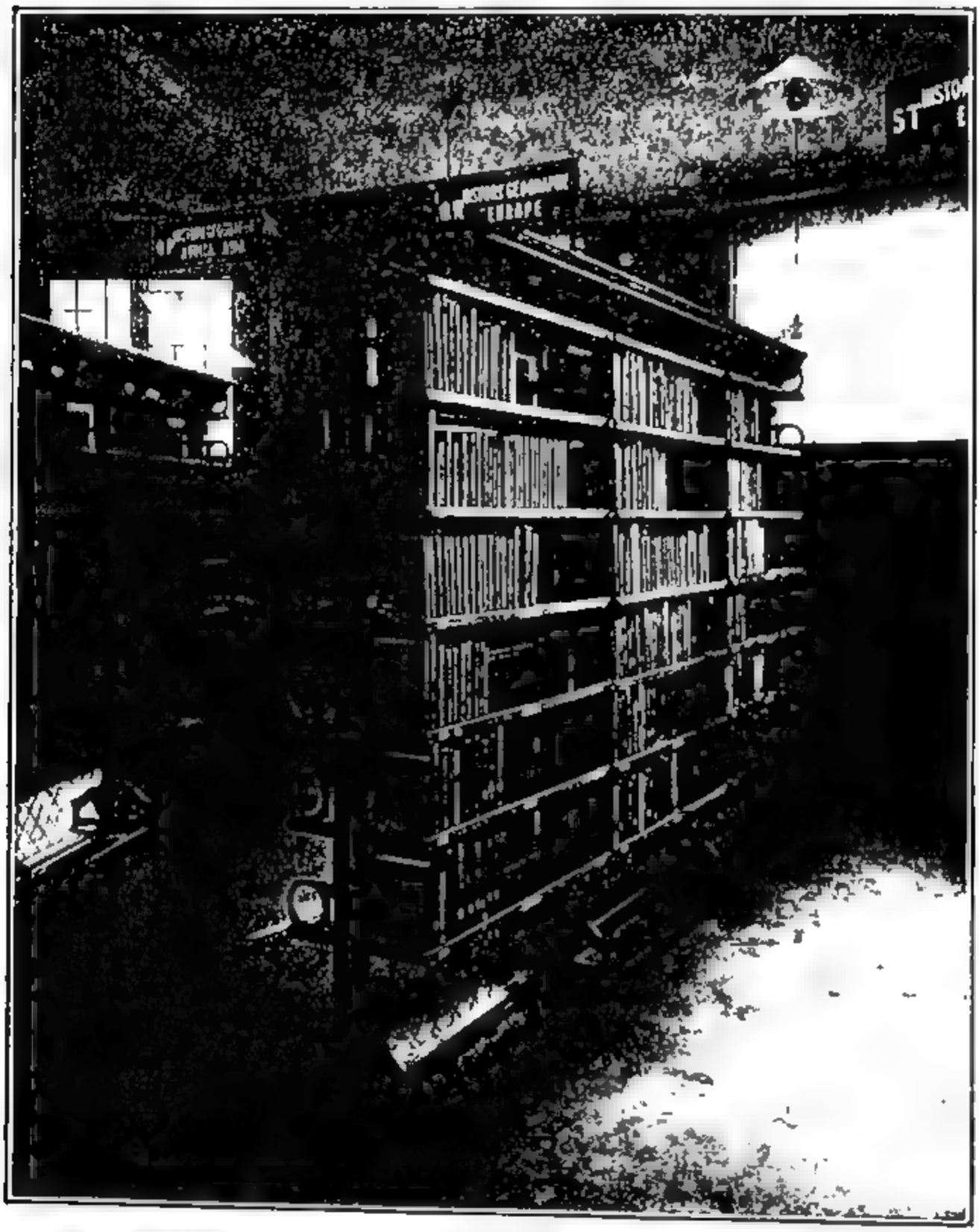


FIG. 75.—Bookcase with Classification Guides and Shelf labels (Section 248).

with a column for recording any subsequent facts, such as its finding, replacement, or other means of recovery.

250. Dummies and Overflow Stock.—Sometimes the

library becomes congested at certain places owing to limited space and rapid growth, and if weeding is not resorted to some of the less popular or old books must be removed to a supplementary store. There is scarcely a library which does not possess a second classification stored apart, where such crowded-out books are kept. On the shelf register these books can either be indicated by means of a red-ink cross, or they can

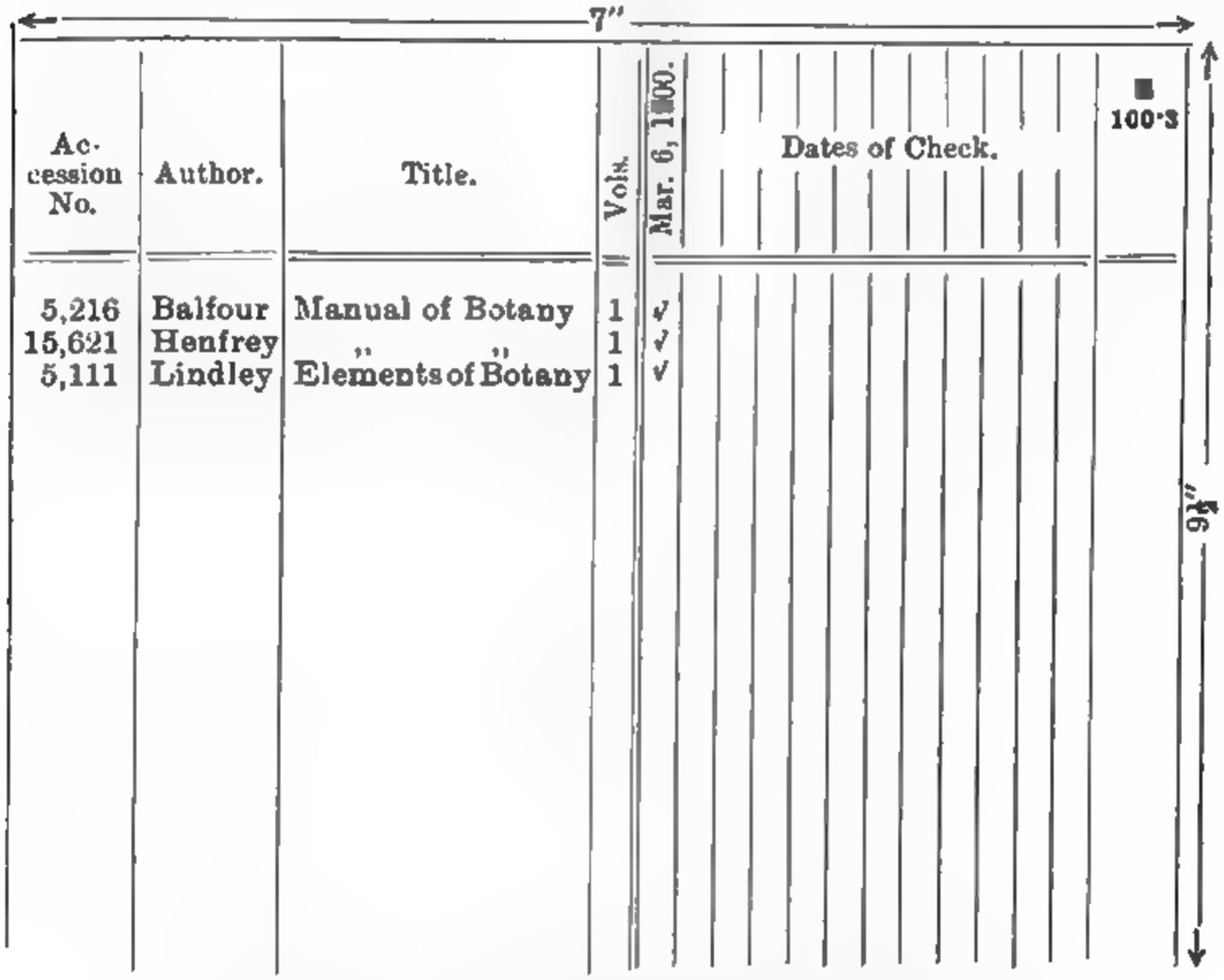


FIG. 76.—Shelf-check Register (Section 249).

be removed from the original and entered on supplementary sheets. Dummies, such as those described in Section 251, can also be used to show abstractions, especially in open-access libraries, or lists can be mounted on cards and kept beside each tier. The question of surplus stock is one which ought to be dealt with on the broad lines of the discarding policy discussed in Section 196, but, of course, an actual division of stock caused by overcrowding must be treated as recommended above.

Large and odd-sized books should be shelved in special presses, and their place in the classification can be indicated by means of dummies, as described below.

251. Shelf Accessories.—For the purpose of maintaining order on the shelves and marking particular divisions or classes, various devices have from time to time been introduced.

DUMMIES are used to indicate the temporary absence of books,

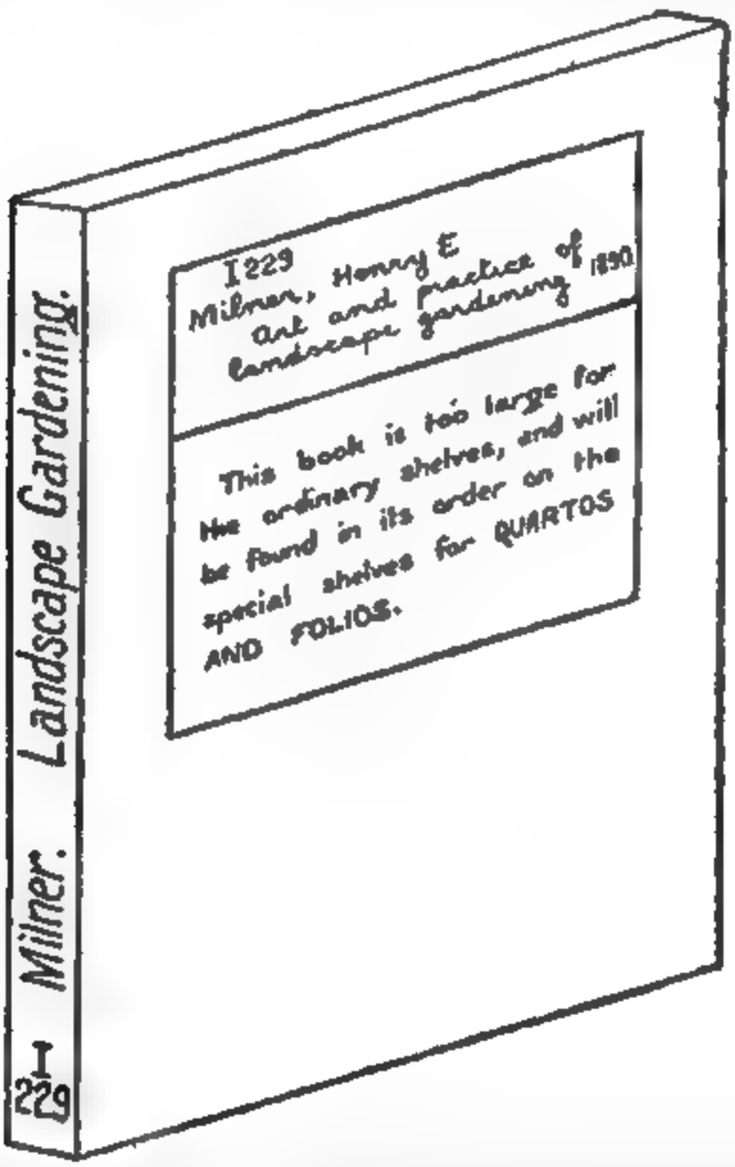

Milner. Landscape Gardening.
I-229
I229
Milner, Henry E
Art and practice of landscape gardening
1890
This book is too large for the ordinary shelves, and will be found in its order on the special shelves for QUARTOS AND FOLIOS.

FIG. 77.—Shelf Dummy for Book Shelved out of Order (Section 251).

or to show that particular works, because of their large size, are located on some other shelf. The simplest form of shelf dummy for classification purposes is a block of wood about 7 inches × 5 inches × ⅝ inch, painted white, or covered with white paper on the edge, and lettered with the title of the book which it represents. The title may be written on each of the seven-inch faces, in case the block gets reversed, and should also bear a

plain direction to the location of the book it represents (Fig. 77).

252. For books temporarily withdrawn a piece of millboard covered white on one side may be used in the form shown below (Fig. 78). This should have the author, number and title of the missing book written on the white side. One board of this sort can be used over and over again for different books, by simply adding the new title and obliterating the old one. This board can also be used instead of the block above illustrated (Fig. 77) if space is a matter of moment.

The object of the tail in this form of board is to prevent the

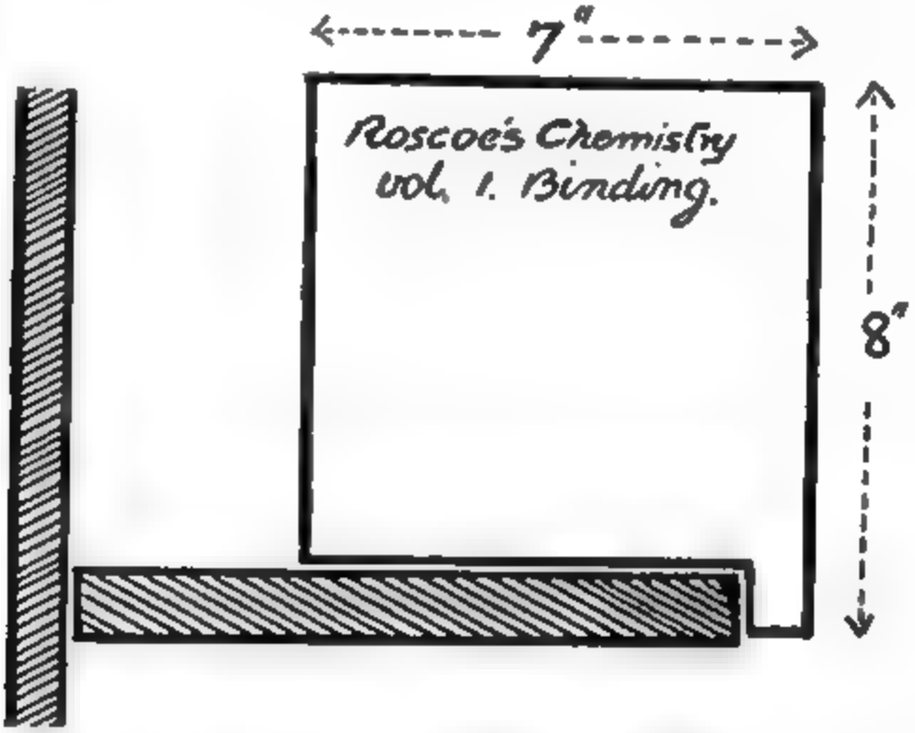


FIG. 78.—Millboard Dummy for Withdrawn Book (Section 252).

board from disappearing behind or getting lost among the other books. When placed between two books, with the projection overhanging the front of the shelf, it will always stick out so as to be readily seen, while it cannot very readily be pushed deep into the shelf because of the projection.

253. LABEL-HOLDERS for keeping all kinds of classification or other labels in place upon the fore-edges of shelves, close to the books which they indicate, are made in various forms. An old form was made out of tin or thin japanned iron, with a pair of flanges on the upper and lower edges to take a card-label. This was screwed or tacked on to the edge of the shelf and

shifted when necessary. Another form of this holder is made precisely the same as regards the turned-over flanges to form grooves, but without the screw holes, and has in addition a long projection to slide under the books on the shelf so as to keep in place. This can be moved easily, of course, but it is very apt to be pulled out when books are removed. A simple,

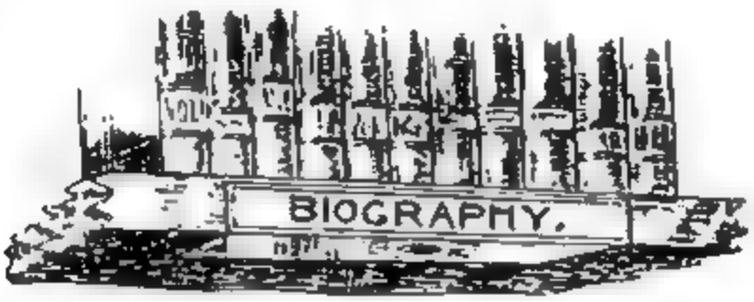


FIG. 79—Xylonite Label-holder (Section 254).

yet effective shelf label-holder is made from strips of transparent xylonite bent in a rectangular form, and pinned or screwed to the underside of the shelf as illustrated (Fig. 79). This can be made to fit snugly into shelves with either square or rounded edges, and keeps the labels quite clean, as it covers

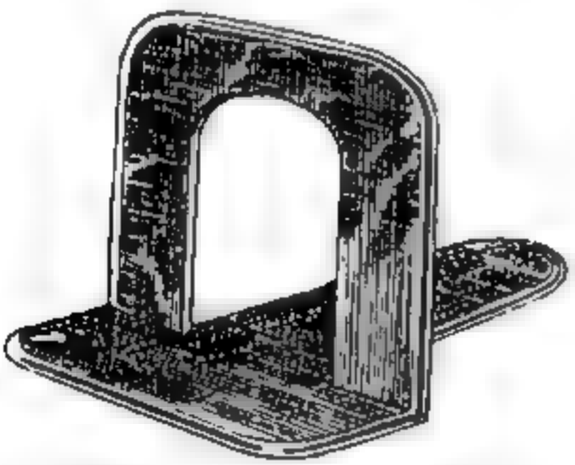


FIG. 80.—Tongued Metal Book-rest (Section 254).

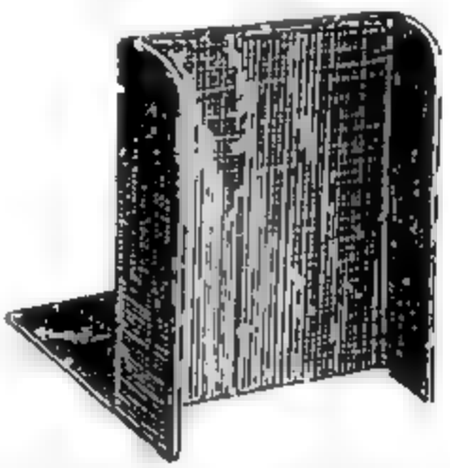


FIG. 81.—Flanged Metal Book-rest (Section 254).

them over. The advantage of this form of label-holder is that it can be cut with a pair of scissors or a knife to any size, if wanted only for simple shelf or class numbers. It is also easily adjusted or changed with but little trouble.

254. BOOK-RESTS AND SHELF GUIDES.—Practically every librarian has invented a book-rest at some period of his or her

career, and there is consequently the less need for describing more than one or two typical devices. The best-known form is the ordinary rectangular metal rest, which is made in severa styles in japanned iron. Fig. 80 is the best form, though it is objectionable, because books are apt to be impaled upon the sharp

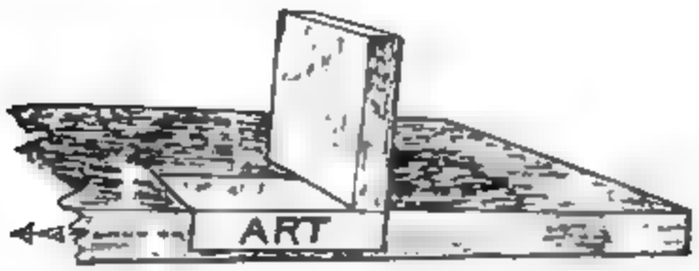


FIG. 82.—Combined Book-rest and Shelf Guide (Section 254).

FIG. 83.—Yale Book-rest (Section 254).

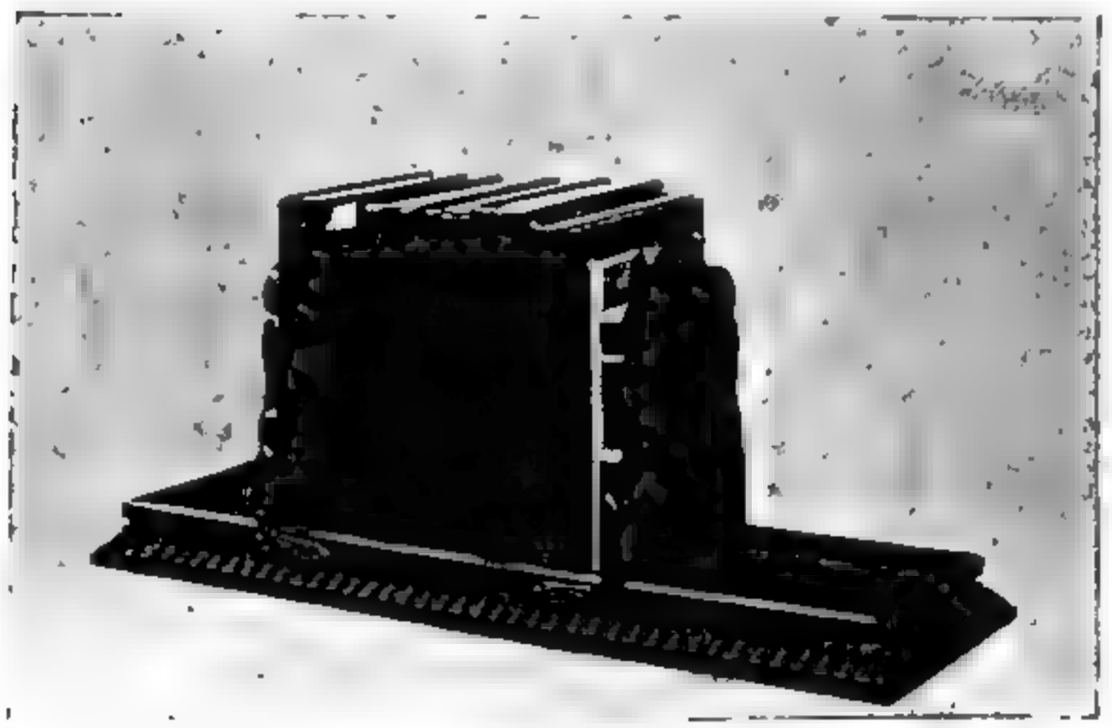


FIG. 81.—Adjustable Book-stand (Section 256).

edge and damaged, and occasionally the rest itself is lost. A better, though slightly more expensive, form is Fig. 81. By reason of the flanged side there is no danger of a book being damaged, and this side can also be used as a classification guide if wanted to mark off alphabetical or other divisions. Some-

times, in open-access libraries particularly, it is desirable to use divisional guides to indicate where one class begins and another ends, and this form will be found useful. Plain wooden blocks mounted on metal angle pieces which can be made to act as

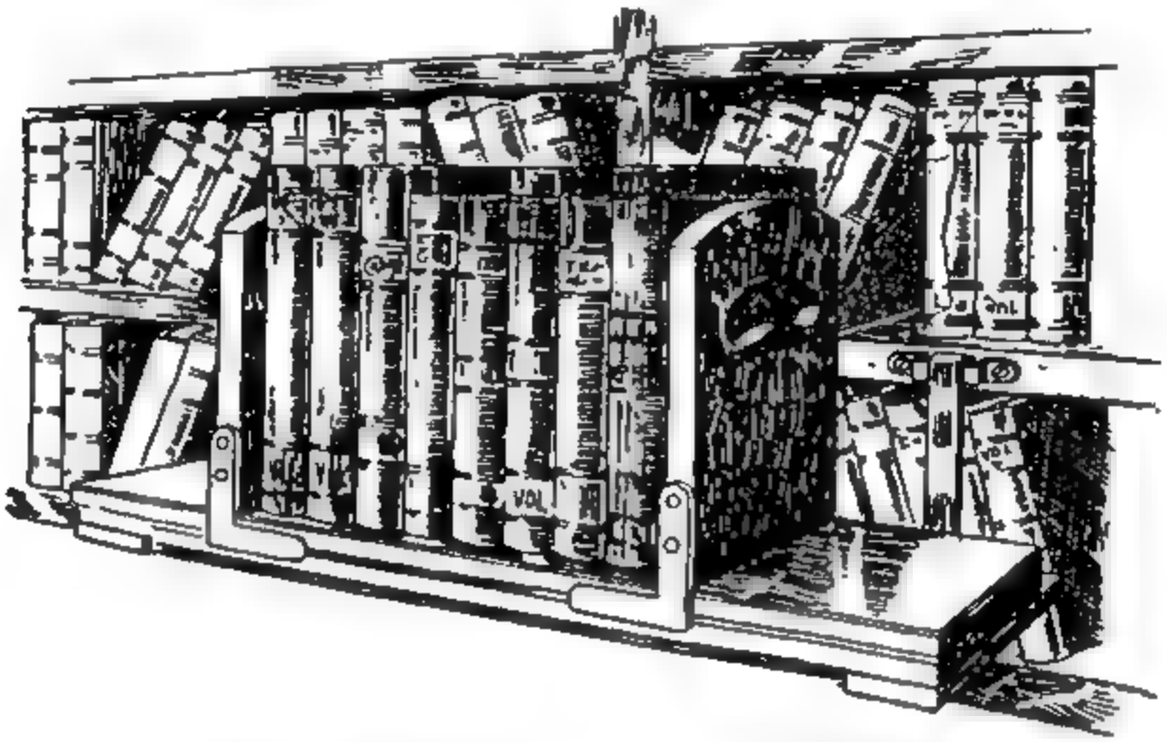


FIG. 85.—Book-carrier hung on front of Bookcase (Section 256).

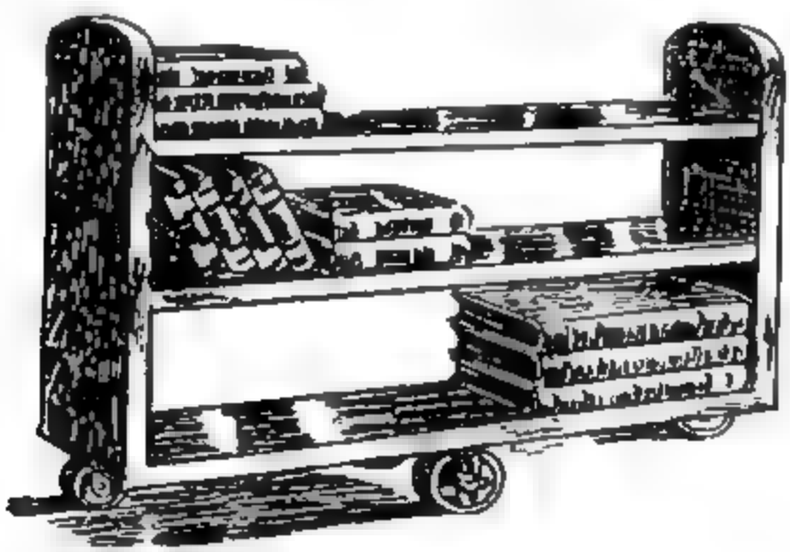


FIG. 86.—Book-truck (Section 256).

label-holders are also useful in classified libraries. The illustration (Fig. 82) above will show the form of this device.

Another form of book-rest or support is sufficiently described by the illustration opposite (Fig. 83).

255. Book-Stands and Carriers.—For desk and table use there are two very convenient and adjustable book-stands

which will be found useful in public as well as private libraries. One is the American stand with adjustable wire compartments, which is useful for keeping books handy for desk use or for sorting out cards, etc.

256. The other is the English adjustable book-stand which is largely used for displaying and carrying about a few books for committee or consultation purposes. As a table book-holder, this is probably the best and strongest form ever invented. As shown in the illustration (Fig. 84) the uprights slide and firmly grip a large or small number of books, according to the capacity of the holder. This same contrivance has been adapted as a library book-carrier, by having strong hooks attached, which fit into staples affixed to the fronts or ends of bookcases. They are very useful for classifying and arranging books awaiting replacement or shelving (Fig. 85).

There are other forms of book-holders and carriers with fixed upright ends, but they are not so satisfactory as the adjustable forms described.

257. In large libraries a book-truck will be found a useful appliance for moving quantities of books about, either for purposes of service or location or cataloguing. The design in Fig. 86 will sufficiently explain this device.

REFERENCE LIST OF AUTHORITIES:—

258. Author Marks—

Anderson (P. J.) Author and work marks. L. W., v. 3, p. 279.
Brown (J. D.) Author marks and symbols. *In his* "Subject classification," 1906, p. 26.
Daniels (J. F.) Author and title marks in fiction. P. L., v. 7, p. 143.
Jast (L. S.) New book number. L. W., v. 3, pp. 120, 150.

259. Classification and Shelf Guides—

Langton (H. H.) Systems of shelf notation. L. J., v. 21, p. 441.
Lyster (T. W.) Shelf classification. L. A. R., v. 2, p. 399.
Savage (E. A.) Classification guides and indexes. L. W., v. 8, p. 261.
Stewart (J. D.) Guiding an open-access lending library. L. W., v. 7, p. 113.
Stewart (J. D.) Oversize books. L. W., v. 9, p. 208.

260. Shelf Lists—

Crawford (E.) The Shelf list. P. L., v. 4, p. 381.
Dewey (M.) Shelf list. *In his* "Library School rules," 1892.

261. Book Sizes—

Library Association. Report on size notation. L., v. 4, p. 147.

DIVISION VII.

CATALOGUING, INDEXING, FILING.

CHAPTER XVI.

CATALOGUING RULES AND METHODS.

262. General.—Notwithstanding the number of rules and codes for different kinds of printed catalogues which have been published during the past fifty years, the average public library catalogue, both British and American, is about the most unsatisfactory piece of work connected with librarianship. Neither the meagre American "Finding-List," nor the so-called British "Dictionary Catalogue," supplies the information about books which readers require, while only an occasional example is compiled according to the elaborate codes of "Rules" laid down by Cutter and others. It is astonishing how few British dictionary catalogues go beyond the merely elementary part of Cutter's *Rules*. After providing the baldest kind of author, title, subject and occasional form entries, they nearly all stop short here, and do not proceed with the necessary co-ordination of subjects required in an alphabetical catalogue, nor with the equally necessary descriptions of books with obscure titles. A bare index of authors, subjects and titles with a few cross-references and collected lists, is all that the ordinary British municipal library provides in the way of aiding readers to select books with intelligence, and it must be confessed that such inventories, when not associated with direct access to the shelves, reduce the whole operation of book selection and reading to the level of a lottery. It has always seemed plain that

quite a wrong conception has been formed of the purposes and limits of a library catalogue. Generally, it is assumed by the cataloguer that the reader knows exactly what book he requires, and if a list is provided arranged like a dictionary in one alphabet of authors' names, titles and subject words, there can be no difficulty in a reader ascertaining if the book he wants is in the library. This is a useful assumption as far as it goes, but unfortunately it does not go far enough; while it has become the stereotyped plan on which British and many American municipal library catalogues have been compiled—to serve the sole purpose of enabling readers to discover for themselves if certain *known* works are possessed by the library. But this is only one out of many purposes for which catalogues should exist. Surely a catalogue intended for public use should be a guide to the contents of books, as well as a mere list of otherwise meaningless titles; because this is what such a catalogue becomes to the reader who only knows a few books. Suppose a library to consist of 20,000 volumes, and that the average reader wishes to use the catalogue for the purpose of discovering the literature of some particular subject. When he has exhausted his own scanty knowledge, which may extend to, perhaps, two or three of the books catalogued, he will be confronted with twenty, fifty, or even a hundred titles of other books about which he knows absolutely nothing, and the cataloguer does not, as a rule, provide a single scrap of note, hint, or even in some cases dates of publication, to guide the reader in his quest. As this condition will apply all round, it follows that something like 95 per cent. of the books in a public library remain unknown and undescribed to practically all save a few special readers. This aspect of the question does not seem to have troubled the average librarian much, because for years he has gone on with his bare alphabetical lists, utterly oblivious of the fact that the ordinary, and also the student, reader requires some guidance with the books he *does not* know, as well as some note or means of discriminating between old and new books, complete and incomplete histories, detailed and

outline text-books, etc. The first principle to be aimed at in any kind of catalogue is to inform the reader of the difference between books on the same subject, to indicate clearly their period and scope, and generally to aid him or her in making a useful choice. It is not enough to assume that the reader knows all this, as well as the character and authority of every author who ever wrote. Not one reader in a hundred knows exactly what he wants, even in the realms of fiction, and no catalogue which merely consists of transcripts of title-pages arranged in an alphabet of authors, titles and subjects, will afford very much assistance. The dictionary or finding-list forms of catalogue have been specially mentioned, because they are the worst offenders in regard to withholding information, as well as being the most common variety in Britain and America. They are also the kind which can be most easily compiled with that sort of facility which is fatal to accuracy and good workmanship. As ordinarily understood and executed, a dictionary catalogue is simply an alphabetical arrangement of certain particulars selected from the title-pages of books, compiled in a purely mechanical manner, and most wasteful in every respect. A dictionary catalogue as it *could* be compiled, according to Cutter's *Rules*, plus more recent improvements, is a very different thing, but practically unattainable by any ordinary British public library on account of its excessive elaboration and probable cost. A properly compiled dictionary catalogue, fully annotated, with all its related parts clearly shown, and the literature of every main class displayed by means of cross-references, etc., would be a work of enormous labour, and when completed would be almost immediately out of date. The plan of the dictionary catalogue in its most comprehensive form provides for the title of a book being entered over and over again, as the needs of the case require, so that with the further elaboration of explanatory notes, references, the setting out of subdivisions of main classes in a clear and systematic manner, and other necessary accessories, this type of catalogue would assume enormous proportions. It cannot be effectively dealt with in sections, owing to the absence

of classification and the fact that such a procedure would not materially reduce the total cost, but very probably add to it. The only advantage of sectional publication in a dictionary catalogue would be to increase the opportunities for revision, and, it may be added, the cost of production could be spread over a longer period.

263. Here, then, is a library appliance of the utmost importance, which, in the vast majority of places, is compiled in the least useful and efficient form so far as the general public are concerned, and it becomes necessary to inquire if there are no alternatives to this plan which are more effective and economical. Within recent years the whole policy of the printed catalogue has been challenged, both in Britain and America, and there has grown up a considerable body of opinion opposed to the plan of issuing alphabetical catalogues in one volume, which are costly, difficult to keep up-to-date, and inefficient for purposes of conveying information about books. Some writers go so far as to advocate the abolition of the printed catalogue altogether, and the substitution of MS. varieties in card or sheaf form. Others would compromise this by printing lists of special collections, in addition to maintaining the MS. catalogue; while others would restrict cataloguing to the MS. form, supplemented by monthly or quarterly printed lists or bulletins of additions. The method here advised is not quite so drastic as any of these, while it would very materially reduce the cost and disadvantages of the printed dictionary catalogue, without losing any of its advantages. The provision of a complete catalogue in manuscript form in every department or branch, compiled so as to show authors, titles, subjects, classes and all varieties of entry, to which annotations would be copiously applied, will be found preferable to any other form. This could be maintained at a comparatively small annual cost in card or sheaf form, and would be always complete and up-to-date as a library catalogue. As over 80 per cent. of borrowers from lending libraries and all reference library readers must come to the libraries to be served, it follows that a catalogue always up-to-

date and fully explanatory, kept at the very point of service, would be of immense value and convenience to the majority of public library users. For the comparatively small proportion of readers who have to send messengers, or who must make their choice of books at home, printed catalogues can be provided in a comparatively inexpensive form. Probably, in very many cases, the needs of the stay-at-home reader will be quite effectively supplied by means of a monthly or quarterly bulletin of additions, and every other reader can be most efficiently served by means of the printed class lists described in Section 274, etc.

264. Cataloguing Rules.—Consideration of the policy of cataloguing naturally brings forward the question of rules, and here, as before stated, there are more codes than good specimens compiled in accordance with them. The principal cataloguing codes are the following, and inquirers are referred to them for further information :—

1. Cutter (C. A.) Rules for a printed dictionary catalogue. 4th ed. Washington, D.C. 1904.
2. Quinn (J. H.) Manual of Library Cataloguing. London. 1899.
3. Library Association Cataloguing Rules. Last revised in 1885, and published in the L. A. Year Books, and as a separate pamphlet in the L. A. Series, No. 5; and, with Index, by the New York State Library School, 1902. Bulletin, No. 77. This also contains the Bodleian (Oxford) and British Museum Rules. These rules are again under revision, and will be issued in association with the new American code.
4. American Library Association. Condensed Rules for an author and title catalogue. *See* "Library Journal," 1883, pp. 251-254, 263-264. Also separate revised issue, Washington, 1902. This will be published in conjunction with and as part of the English code.
5. Perkins (F. B.) San Francisco cataloguing. 1884.
6. Dewey (M.) Rules for author and classed catalogues, with 52 facsimiles of sample cards. 4th ed. Boston. 1892.

7. Wheatley (H. B.) How to catalogue a library. London. 1889.
8. Linderfelt (K. A.) Eclectic card catalog rules. Author and titles. Based on Dziatzko's "Instruction," compared with the Rules of the British Museum, Cutter, Dewey, Perkins and other authorities. Boston. 1890.
9. Jast (L. S.) Classified and annotated cataloguing, suggestions and rules. *See* "Library World," vols. 1, 2, 3, 1898-1900. Abridged in "Library World," vol. 7, 1906.
10. Brown (James Duff) A Manual of practical bibliography. London. [1906], pp. 99-115.

265. The whole of these codes of rules, save Nos. 1, 2 and 9, are drawn up for author and title catalogues, or for those in alphabetical form, and, as may be seen by reference to No. 8, are not distinguished by any great measure of unanimity. Every catalogue-rule compiler is generally a law unto himself, and the determination to insist on individuality is the only point of agreement it is possible to notice. A very large proportion of the rules drawn up only apply to university libraries and other special libraries which collect oriental books and those in the less known European languages. Largely for this reason they have little value for ordinary municipal libraries, the books in which rarely consist of any save those in the leading modern European languages. The best codes to follow are those of Cutter, Quinn and Brown for author entries, and Jast and Quinn for subject or class entries and annotations. But, unfortunately, none of these are well adapted for the type of catalogue recommended—manuscript and printed class guides—and there is urgent need for a separate body of simple rules for this particular style of catalogue. As an attempt towards this, the following are submitted:—

266. RULES FOR COMPILING MS. AND CLASS CATALOGUES, extracted from *A Manual of Practical Bibliography* by James Duff Brown.

Authorship.

1. Surnames. Enter under the surnames of the authors when stated in the books or otherwise ascertained. In all cases, save where varied in the rules following, such surnames are to be the birth-names of the authors, in their vernacular forms. Cross-references are to be made in every case from uncommon to common forms of names.

   Surnames in English beginning with a prefix (D', De, Du, Le, La, Von, Van, etc.) are to be entered under such prefix. In other languages the prefixes must be ignored, save the French La, Le, Des and Du, which must be used, *e.g.*: La Fontaine, *not* Fontaine, La. The word following the prefix must be used, *e.g.*: Beethoven, Ludwig van, *not* van Beethoven.

2. Christian or Forenames. Enter Christian names after the surnames and distinguish them by placing them between parentheses, thus—

   Smith (William J.).

   In cases where an author is known only by a second forename, as

   William Blanchard Jerrold,

   Henry Austin Dobson,

   write out in full as above; but pick out the known name in different type, or underline it; and in cases where there are a number of authors of the same name, arrange by the known and ignore the disused forename. Only write out in full the first forename, unless it is a disused one, *e.g.*:—

   Smith (Thomas J. W. T.).

3. Distinctions and Titles. Ignore designations like Reverend, Doctor, M.A., LL.D., Professor, Miss, etc., save when required by Rule 4, but note titles or offices which will serve to distinguish an author and indicate his status or authority, *e.g.*:—

Stanley (Arthur P.) *Dean.*
Keppel (Sir Henry) *Admiral.*
Macdonald (Sir Hector) *General.*
Stubbs (William) *Bishop.*
Jessel (Sir George) *Master of the Rolls.*

4. Biographical Dates. Use birth and death dates, or other period dates, to distinguish authors of the same name, *e.g.* :—

Smith (William) 1810-1870.
— (William) 1815-1861.
— (William) 1819-1890.

In cases where such means of identification are not available, use their professions or other distinctions, as in Rule 3.

5. Royal and other Dignitaries. Monarchs, Popes and Princes generally are to be entered at their ruling names in their vernacular forms, with references from other forms, and from family names, *e.g.* :—

Charles II. *of Britain.*
Stuart. *See* Charles II.
Gregory VII., *Pope.*
Hildebrand. *See* Gregory VII.

6. Noblemen. Enter all noblemen under their birth or family names, with references from their titles, *e.g.* :—

St. John (Henry) *Viscount Bolingbroke.*
Bolingbroke (Viscount) *see* St. John (Henry).
Lubbock (Sir John) *Baron Avebury.*
Avebury (Baron) *see* Lubbock (Sir John).

7. Ecclesiastical Personages. Archbishops, Bishops, Cardinals, Patriarchs, etc., are to be entered under their family names where known, with references from titles, *e.g.* :—

Magee (William C.) *Archbishop.*
York, Archbishop of. *See* Magee, etc.
Ebor., William. *See* Magee (William C.).

Saints are to be entered under the forenames by which they were canonized, *e.g.* :—

Paul, Saint, *not* Saint Paul,

with references from family names if considered sufficiently important.

Friars, Abbots, Monkish chroniclers, etc., are to be entered under their forenames, *e.g.* :—

Florence of Worcester, *not* Worcester, Florence of.

William of Malmesbury, *not* Malmesbury, William of.

References to be given from local to personal names.

8. Compound Names. All compound names, English, European and Oriental, to be entered under the first word, with references from the second or other words, *e.g.* :—

Baring-Gould (Sabine).

Gould (Sabine Baring-) *see* Baring-Gould.

Watts-Dunton (Theodore).

Dunton (Theodore Watts-) *see* Watts-Dunton.

The only exception to this rule is when the first name is ascertained not to be the birth or family name, in which case Rule 1 must be observed.

9. Changed Names. Married women are to be entered under their birth or maiden names, unless they have consistently used their married names on their title-pages, *e.g.* :—

Wood (Mrs. Henry) *Ellen Price.*

Oliphant (Margaret) *M. Wilson.*

but—

Braddon (Mary E.), *not* Maxwell (Mrs. John).

Worboise (Emma J.), *not* Guyton (Mrs. E.).

Hamilton (Margaret), *not* Mrs. Argles or Mrs. Hungerford.

Palmer (Henrietta E. V.), *not* Mrs. Stannard or John Strange Winter.

In all cases the married name or names should be added thus—

Palmer (Henrietta E. V.), *Mrs. Stannard, John Strange Winter;* and the necessary cross-references should be made.

10. Joint-Authorship. Enter under the first name mentioned on the title-page and make references from the others, *e.g.* :—

Beaumont (Francis) and John Fletcher.

Fletcher (John) *see* Beaumont (Francis).

The works of two or more authors published together should be treated as if issued separately, *e.g.* :—

Poetical works of Goldsmith, Gray and Falconer catalogue as—

Goldsmith (Oliver) Poetical works.

Gray (Thomas) Poetical works.

Falconer (William) Poetical works.

But make also a collective entry thus, if thought desirable—

Goldsmith (O.), Thos. Gray and W. Falconer. Poetical works.

11. Editors, Translators, Commentators. The names of editors and translators of the works of other authors are to be entered as part of the title of such works, with cross-references, *e.g.* :—

Burns (Robert) Life and works. Edited by Robert Chambers, revised by William Wallace.

Chambers (Robert) *see* Burns (Robert).

Wallace (William) *see* Burns (Robert).

Editors or translators of collections or anthologies, or any work not definitely assigned to a particular author, are to be treated as the authors, *e.g.* :—

Oxenford (John) *trans.* The Illustrated book of French songs.

Johnston (Peter) *ed.* The Charters of Kelross Abbey.

Commentators are to be treated as original authors, but a full entry must also be made under the name of the author, work or subject commented upon.

12. Pseudonyms. In conformity with Rule 1, the real names of authors who adopt pseudonyms must be used, with cross-references from the assumed or pseudonymous names, *e.g.* :—

Wilson (John) *Christopher North.* The Isle of Palms.

North (Christopher) *see* Wilson (John).

Initials, marks or symbols, and phrases, are to form part of the title, and be treated as anonyma, *e.g.* :—

Considerations on the late war, by G. W.

Poems, by XXX.

Reflections on life, by One who has toiled at the bench.

Where such initials, marks or phrases, have been identified with real names, such real names must, of course, be used. Cross-references may be used in all cases, if thought necessary, between initials, etc., and titles or real names if ascertained.

13. Anonyma. Anonymous works are to be entered under the first word, not an article, with which the title-page begins, save when the authorship is ascertained, in which case Rule 1 applies. In such a case the abbreviation *anon.* = anonymous, may be used immediately after the title, *e.g.* :—

Smith (John P.) Essay on music. *Anon.*

14. Governmental, Society, Academic and other Institutional Authorships. The main entries of such publications should be placed under the subject-matter of the report or document, with brief cross-references from titles of institutions, towns where situated, and reporters or authors.

The titles of such institutions will be entered as

provided by Rule 13. At the subject-heading chosen, the works will be entered under the title of the institution, *e.g.* :—

Education. United States. Report of the Commissioner of Education.

Football. Rules of the Hornsey Football Club.

Mining. Home Office. Reports of H.M. Inspector of Mines.

15. Periodicals and Ephemera. Treat the same as Anonyma, Rule 13, but make cross-references from places of publication, if thought desirable, and enter under subjects.

Titles and Colophons.

16. Title-pages are to be transcribed exactly as they stand, save that foreign characters may be transliterated, subject to such omissions or additions as may be advisable. Capital letters should only be used after the initial article, if there is one, for first words, and for proper or subject names, *e.g.* :—

The Wonderful adventures of Tom, Dick and Harry in quest of Light;

or

News from Nowhere;

or

Elementary Physics, with a chapter on Astronomy.

Omitted matter, which should only consist of mottoes, redundancies, and words not necessary to a clear understanding of the title, should be indicated by three dots . . . in a group.

Added matter should be placed within square brackets, and should consist of such explanatory matters as dates covered by a history; translations of foreign titles; the original titles of foreign works which have been translated; dates of publication; authors' names, etc., *e.g.* :—

A Little tour in France [1882].

Hugo (Victor) By Order of the king [L'Homme qui rit].

17. Editions. Enter the number of an edition when stated on the title-page or otherwise ascertained. Note also if the copy of the edition is on large paper, l.p.; privately printed, p.p.; a limited edition, in which case give the number of the copy, l.e. 56; and if printed on vellum, vel., silk or other material, *e.g.* :—

Thomson (James) The Seasons. 19th ed. vel., l.e. 36.

18. Place of Publication. Enter the place of publication in its vernacular form and supply the English name in brackets, *e.g.* :—

Wien [Vienna]. Torino [Turin].

Omit London, as it occurs so frequently, and let the absence of a place of publication be understood to mean London, unless there is actually no indication of a place, in which case use the abbreviation n.p. = no place of publication.

19. Date of Publication. Enter the year of publication in Arabic numerals, as given on the title-page, but add within brackets the real date if ascertained to be different, *e.g.*, 1905 [1904].

In a series of volumes give the first and last dates, *e.g.*, 1835-64. When no date is given either on the title-page or elsewhere in the book, add an approximate date within square brackets after the letters n.d. = no date, *e.g.*, n.d. [1820]. Such approximate dates can generally be ascertained from prefaces, allusions in the text, the style of the book, its printer or publisher, or from bibliographies. Chronograms may be given in full in very rare books, but otherwise they should be translated into Arabic figures.

20. Imprint. In rare books, when desirable, give full transcripts of colophons; note printers' marks; give pub-

lishers' names when they differ from the printer; and note books issued from private presses, like the Kelmscott Press.

Description and Collation.

21. Volumes. State the number of volumes if more than one, *e.g.*, 2 v.

22. Sizes. Indicate the sizes of books in inches or centimetres, measuring the title-page and not the binding. If thought desirable, the symbols fo. (= folio), 4° (= quarto), 8° (= octavo), 12° (= duodecimo), etc., may be used as well, as a rough guide to sizes, *e.g.*, fo. 18, 4°, 10 × 8, etc. For ordinary catalogue purposes it is not necessary to indicate any sizes save folios and quartos, and in such cases the letters F and Q can be used. Watermarks can be ignored, save in very old unpaged books, when a note of their order can be made.

23. Pagination. Indicate the number of pages in one-volume books only, by giving the full number in Arabic numerals (counting the verso of the last leaf if blank), and distinguishing preliminary matter when separately paged by means of Roman numerals, *e.g.*. pp. xl + 630.

24. Signatures. In old unpaged books, note the progression of signatures, or failing them, check the catchwords, and give the total number of leaves or pages, *e.g.*, Sig. A-L—90 pp., or simply pp. 105. Imperfections should be noted as—"Wants pp. 61-68," "Preface missing," "Title-page missing," and so on.

25. Series. When a book belongs to a series, whether stated on the title, binding or elsewhere, it should be noted in italics, thus—

Hadden (J. C.) Chopin. 1903 8° pp. xii + 248
Master Musicians.

26. Alphabetical Order of Catalogues. In arranging an alphabetical catalogue adopt the same progression as

is found in dictionaries of language, geography, etc. That is, arrange letter by letter, including second words. Do not ignore second words or compound names.

Not thus :

New Brunswick.
— Caledonia.
— Guinea.
— Orleans.
— Testament.
— York.
Newbury.
Newcastle.
Newfoundland.
Newington.
Newry.

But arrange thus :

New Brunswick.
Newbury.
New Caledonia.
Newcastle.
Newfoundland.
New Guinea.
Newington.
New Orleans.
Newry.
New Testament.
New York.

27. Classified Catalogues. Make author entries on slips as shown in examples at Section 283. The index to a classified catalogue should consist of two parts, the author and the subject index. They can be amalgamated like the ordinary dictionary catalogue, but there are advantages in keeping them separate. In the author index the entries should be of the briefest possible kind, compatible with clearness. A mere page or class reference is not enough for the reader who wishes to ascertain what works the library has by a given author. To this kind of reader a reference like the following—

Huxley (T. H.), A, A12, A24, A30, A46,

imposes the burden of separately turning up each entry. There is no real economy in such an index, especially to the user. A better form is as follows:—

Huxley (T. H.), Biology, A24.
,, ,, Darwiniana, A12.
,, ,, Evolution and ethics, A12.
,, ,, Man's place in nature, A30.
,, ,, Organic nature, A12.
,, ,, Physiology, A46.
,, ,, Scientific memoirs, A.

This may swell the index a little, but as it is composed

of single-work authors mainly, and will be printed in long, cheap columns, the additional cost will be insignificant. Of course, this method applies to printed indexes only. Pseudonyms are to be referred from in this index. The subject and title index should comprise in one alphabet entries of every subject referred to in titles or notes, and should index the set-out contents of essays, poems, etc. Where references are to notes and works not on the subject heading the index should show them by giving the class and author's name as follows :—

Climate A300 ; A Brown, A226 Croll, A292 Croll, B478.

Titles of anonymous works should be noted under their first words, as mentioned in Rule 2. The titles of works which are of a striking or well-known character, and do not include a subject word, may be indexed—

Eothen, Kinglake F86.

Mummies and Moslems, Warner F104.

Such titles as the following, which are already sufficiently indexed under their subject words, should never be indexed :—

Egypt in the 19th century.
Timbuctoo, Dubois.
Island of Cuba.
History of Spain.
Naturalist in Nicaragua.

28. Supplemental Information. Note the following particulars of publication in the order and, if thought desirable, in the abbreviated forms here set down, and also on p. 236 :—

Illustrations = *ill.*, *col. ill.*[1]
Portraits = *port.* or *ports.*[1]
Maps = *maps*[1]

[1] Note imperfections if any. Text illustrations to be noted. This includes celebrated illustrators as—*ill.* by G. Cruikshank.

Plans	= *plans* [1]
Facsimiles	= *fac.*[1]
Diagrams	= *dia.*
Tables	= *tab.*
Genealogies	= *gen.*
Music	= *mus.*
Memoir	= *mem.*
Glossary	= *glo.*
Bibliography	= *bib.*

Order of Entries.

Author.
Title.
Edition.
Place of Publication.
Date of Publication.
Imprint particulars, for old and rare books only.
No. of Volumes. v.
Size. F. Q. or fo. and 4°.
Pages. (Signatures of old books to be noted.)
Series.

Illustrations	= *i.*, *ill.*, or *col. ill.*
Portraits	= *port.*, or *ports.*
Maps	= *ma.*, *maps*
Plans	= *pl.*, *plans*
Facsimiles	= *f.*, *fac.*
Diagrams	= *d.*, *dia.*
Tables	= *t.*, *tab.*
Genealogical Charts	= *ge.*, *gen.*
Music	= *mu.*, *mus.*
Memoir	= *m.*, *mem.*
Glossary	= *gl.*, *glo.*
Bibliography	= *b.*, *bib.*

Additional marks for special books—Bindings, super-libros; Autographs of great owners, book-plates; Reference

[1] Text illustrations to be noted.

to printed bibliographical description in other works, *e.g.*, Brunet, Hain, Proctor, etc. ; Typography.

Annotation, with analyticals or set-out entries, to be included as notes after the title and other particulars, as a smaller type note.

Class or call numbers to be written at top of slip.

29. Annotations should be added to all entries which are not self-explanatory, and should be placed at subject rather than author headings. They should be confined to elucidating or describing the contents of books and never extended, in library catalogues, to criticism of their literary or other merits ; a function which ought to be reserved for non-official outside publications. The period covered by the work should be indicated in the case of (*a*) histories, (*b*) biographies, etc., and the actual dates of occurrence in the case of works of (*c*) travel, (*d*) experiments, etc.

(*a*) Lingard. History of England.

A.D. 54-1631. Roman Catholic standpoint.

(*b*) Orr. Life and letters of Robert Browning. [1812-1889.]

(*c*) Coillard. Threshold of Central Africa. 1897.

Upper Zambezi : its tribes, geography, etc. 1876-1896.

(*d*) Forbes. Transit of Venus. [1875-1876.]

In the case of (*e*) reprints, the dates of original publication should be given, as well as the dates of the new editions.

(*e*) Swift (Jonathan, 1667-1745) Gulliver's travels [1726]. 1905.

Names, words and phrases occurring in titles should be explained when necessary.

The standpoint of the author should always be given when it can be easily ascertained. *See* note (*a*) above.

The contents of (*f*) collected works should be ade-

quately set out, and this rule should extend to single-volume editions of poets, essayists, etc.

(*f*) Scott (Sir Walter) Poetical works.

Contains Lay of the last minstrel; Lady of the Lake; Marmion; Lord of the Isles; Rokeby, etc.

For full particulars and discussion of the principles of book annotation, *see* "Manual of descriptive annotation for library catalogues," by E. A. Savage. 1906.

REFERENCE LIST OF AUTHORITIES:—

267. General and Rules—

Brown (J. D.) Philosophy of cataloguing. L. W., v. 6, p. 319.
Crawford (E.) Cataloging: suggestions for the small public library. 1906.
Cutler (M. S.) Bibliography of catalogue rules. *In* Dewey's "Library School card catalog rules," 1892.
Edmond (J. P.) Cataloguing of fifteenth-century books. L. A. R., v. 1, p. 297.
Graesel (A.) Cataloguing. *In his* "Bibliothekslehre," 1902.
Guppy (H.) Cataloguing of anonymous literature. L. A. R., v. 8, p. 298.
Hitchler (T.) Cataloging for small libraries. 1905.
—— Comparative cataloguing rules: twenty points in ten codes briefly compared. 1903.
Hulme (E. W.) Principles of cataloguing. L. A. R., v. 8, p. 31.
Lane (W. C.) Cataloguing. (Rules, cards, etc.) U. S. Educ. Rept., 1892-1893, v. 1, p. 835.
Quinn (J. H.) Library cataloguing. Greenwood's Year book, 1900, p. 37.
—— Manual of library cataloguing. 1899.

268. Children's Catalogues—

Collar (M. A.) Classification and cataloguing of children's books. L. J., v. 28, Conf. no., p. 57.
Sayers (W. C. B.) and J. D. Stewart. Catalogues for children. (With code of rules.) L. A. R., v. 7, p. 377.

269. Alphabetical *versus* Classified Forms—

Barrett (F. T.) Alphabetical and classified forms of catalogues compared. Int. Conf., 1897, p. 67.
Bond (H.) Classified *versus* dictionary catalogues. L. A. R., 1900, p. 313.
Brown (J. D.) Classified libraries and catalogues. *In his* "Manual of library classification," 1898, p. 83.
Brown (J. D.) and L. S. Jast. Compilation of class lists. L., v. 9, p. 45.
Doubleday (W. E.) Class lists or dictionary catalogues? L., v. 9, p. 179.

Doubleday (W. E.) The Dictionary Catalogue. L. A. R., 1901, p. 521.
Jast (L. S.) The Class list. L., v. 9, p. 41.
—— Classified and annotated cataloguing: suggestions and rules. L. W., v. 1, p. 159 *et seq.*
Pollard (A. W.) Meditation on directories [alphabetic and classified cataloguing]. L. (N. S.), v. 2, p. 82.

270. Annotation—

Appraisal or description? L. W., 1902. p. 264.
Baker (E. A.) Book annotation in America. L. W., 1902, pp. 198, 235, 253.
Brown (J. D.) Catalogue annotations. L. A., v. 4, p. 106.
—— Descriptive cataloguing. L. (N. S.), v. 2, p. 135.
Classification and annotation of fiction. By E. A. Baker, J. D. Brown, L. S. Jast and H. Bond. L. W., v. 1, pp. 193, 216; v. 2, pp. 150, 177, 206, 239.
Green (E.) Value of annotation in catalogues and book lists. L. A. R., v. 8, p. 444.
Iles (G.) Appraisal of literature. Int. Conf., 1897, p. 166.
—— Expert annotation of book titles. U. S. Educ. Rept., 1892-1893, v. 1, p. 994.
—— Evaluation of literature. L. J., v. 17, Conf. no., p. 18.
Savage (E. A.) Manual of descriptive annotation. 1906.
—— Practical work of annotation. L. W., v. 7, p. 313.
Sayers (W. C. B.) and J. D. Stewart. Annotation. L. W., v. 8, pp. 86, 91.

271. Magazines or Bulletins—

Jast (L. S.) Problem of the printed catalogue: with a possible solution (Bulletins and class lists). L. (N. S.), v. 2, p. 141.
Library bulletins. By Moulton, Foster and Blanchard. L. J., v. 24, p. 473.
Periodical library bulletins. (Symposium.) L. J., v. 19, Conf. no., pp. 50-55.
Sayers (W. C. B.) and J. D. Stewart. Library magazines: their preparation and production. L. W., v. 7, pp. 229, 257, 285, 326; v. 8, pp. 1, 36, 91, 147, 180, 208.
Singleton (J. W.) Library bulletins. L. W., v. 7, p. 118.
Turner (F.) Bulletins. L., v. 10, p. 58.

272. Reading Lists, etc.—

Savage (E. A.) Reading lists. L. W., v. 2, p. 259.
Sayers (W. C. B.) and J. D. Stewart. Reading lists. L. W., v. 8, p. 147.
—— Articles, etc. L. W., v. 8, p. 180.
Stewart (J. D.) The Compilation of reading lists. L. A., v. 4, p. 181.

CHAPTER XVII.

PRINTED CATALOGUES.

273. For public library purposes a printed catalogue in dictionary form is inferior in most respects to one in the form of class lists with annotations. The question of cost is such an important one, that on this alone the matter should be decided in favour of the more economical class list. A thousand books catalogued on the dictionary system will occupy from one-half to one-third more space than the same number catalogued in class-list form, according to the degree of fulness with which the work is done, and cost a correspondingly large amount. But apart from the question of class lists on systematic lines, they are much more satisfactory than unwieldy dictionary catalogues, because they show much more clearly the class relationships of books and topics, and by their form give more frequent opportunities for revision. Again, the mere fact that a classified catalogue is less laborious to compile than a dictionary one, though the work may require more intelligence, is another reason for adopting the more scientific form. The reason why there is less labour to be bestowed upon the compilation of a class list, arises from the fact that a considerable part of the work is done in the preliminary classification of the books on systematic lines. Indeed, it may be said that a well-classified library is more than half catalogued. While a classified catalogue is closely connected with the arrangement of classes and topics on the shelves, a dictionary catalogue resembles the higgledy-piggledy confusion which exists on the shelves of an unclassified library, by giving an alphabetical jumble of all kinds of unrelated subjects and authors, which, though quite legitimate in

an index, is quite out of place in the catalogue of a semi-educational institution like a municipal library.

274. **Class Lists.**—A considerable number of British and American public libraries are now printing sectional class lists or guides, in place of single alphabetical or other catalogues of the whole collection. The reasons are not far to seek. Systematic classification is making such progress, that catalogues no longer require to be mere guides to numerical shelf arrangements, while the traditional notion that an author list was the beginning and end of everything has been almost completely exploded. As subjects and titles are the chief circumstances connected with books which most people remember, the author list becomes a mere secondary matter. Then again, as most titles are but a repetition of their subjects —History of *Ireland*, Elements of *Astronomy*, Introduction to *Theology*, Essays on the *English Language*, etc.—the title index assumes quite a subordinate value, confined generally to fanciful titles like *Eothen*, *Ivanhoe*, *Hudibras*, *Eikon Basilike*, etc., which do not clearly convey the subject-matter. These two classes of entries, which occupy such an important and conspicuous place in the make-up of a dictionary catalogue, may be relegated in a systematic class list to the brief index columns, which occupy but a comparatively small space. There are several kinds of class lists published, such as plain author-alphabetical lists of main classes like History, Travel, Fiction, Science, etc., and lists of similar main classes in dictionary form, or the usual alphabetical jumble of authors, subjects and titles.

275. A modern class list is usually confined to one or two closely related classes, and the entries are all made under a systematic progression of numbered topics. The entries are made very full, and all obscure book-titles are annotated and the information given on them supplemented by additional particulars necessary for fully explaining the purpose and scope of every book. The make-up of a class list may be as follows :—

Title and preface.

Scheme of classification.

Author index, briefly in columns.
Subject and title index in columns.
Body of list in main classes.

Some librarians prefer to issue their lists in small groups of classes, others in large groups. Some issue single class lists and a few issue complete classified catalogues in one volume. This is a matter which must be determined by the size and circumstances of each library, and the size of each class. In most cases four class lists will be found ample in the majority of British municipal libraries: (1) Science and Art; (2) History and Biography; (3) Fiction, Poetry, Essays, Miscellanea; (4) Social and Religious Science.

276. In compiling class lists or guides care should be taken not only to make every book explain itself by means of notes, but where there are large representations of subjects, or groups of related subjects, such as the history of various countries, it is useful to give a chronological list of the writers as an aid to the actual list itself,

e.g.—INDEX TO GENERAL HISTORIES OF BRITAIN.
Earliest times to end of 16th century.

Green.	Lingard.	Sanderson.
Hume.	Oman.	Traill.

This should be prefixed to or added at the end of the entries under the subject-heading itself. Sometimes a very large number of books may be in a library on some particular local or other topic, and the author-list under the heading may include books on a wide range of subjects. For example, at U900 LONDON there will be books on the churches, parishes, theatres, streets, antiquities, Tower, life and history of London, to which the author entries would be no ready guide. It is well, therefore, in such cases to add a little small-type topical index at the end :—

e.g.—INDEX TO BOOKS ON LONDON.

Bartholomew Fair—Morley.
Chelsea—L'Estrange, Martin.
Clubs—Timbs.
Histories—Besant, Doran, Loftie, Stow, Thornbury.
Poor—Beames, Booth, Greenwood, Mayhew.

There are other sections in which these useful aids can be utilized, such as at individual biography, where references to scattered essays in different books can be added to the works on the biography of the person noticed. If a library has six biographies of Shakespeare, these will be much enhanced, and the whole value of the entries improved, if all the essays on Shakespeare, critical or otherwise, are assembled at the same place.

277. **Bulletins or Library Magazines.**—Since about 1894 a considerable number of British municipal libraries have issued quarterly, bi-monthly or monthly magazines or bulletins, in which are printed lists of new books, notes on the work of the library, notes on the history or archæology of the district, portraits, museum notes, etc. All of these are not of equal value to their readers, and it may be said generally that in most cases where the literary side is cultivated it is at the expense of the practical side. The first use of a magazine of this kind is to supply readers with a regular supplementary catalogue of all additions to the library; a second purpose is to publish notifications of new rules or alterations in the working of the library; and a third may be to issue information about the work accomplished by the library. All other matter is purely subsidiary to these departments, and should not be forced into the leading place. More space should be allotted in these bulletins to the description of new books, and annotations should be very liberally supplied to the entries requiring them.

278. The cost of a magazine on the lines indicated need not exceed £12 to £20 per annum if issued quarterly and kept within reasonable limits, and of this amount a part will be recovered from sales. In some very busy libraries the whole outlay may even be recovered in this way. While effecting a considerable saving over the plan of issuing occasional lists of additions, the quarterly guide or bulletin furnishes a *regular* and continuous catalogue of the accessions to a library in every department, while it also provides printed entries by means of which the card or slip catalogue can be kept up-to-date in the most effective manner. By having a few copies of the bulletin printed on thin paper,

one side only, a means is afforded of effecting the purpose of continually revising the card catalogue. The entries can be cut up and mounted on cards or slips, and inserted in the standard catalogue of the library, whatever form it may take. There are other ways in which these magazines can be used to facilitate the work of a library, but most of them will be sufficiently obvious to call for no further remark. The following examples from different magazines will give an idea of their plan and appearance :—

DESCRIPTION.

EUROPE.

Browning, H. E. A Girl's Wanderings in Hungary. *Il.* 1 *mp.* '96. ... ... **CST**[1] T43

"Miss B. has certainly the gift of word painting, and her intense love of the picturesque country and the beautiful Magyar people helps to make her descriptions of them very life like. No one can read it without having a complete picture of the country and the people before his eye."—*Literary World.*

Demolins, Edmond. Anglo-Saxon Superiority : To What Is It Due ? (A quoi tient la Supériorité des Anglo-Saxons.) Tr. L. B. Lavigne. *Mp.* **CST** T42

"The author makes a careful and intelligent comparison between Anglo-Saxons on the one hand, and Frenchmen and Germans on the other. The conclusion he arrives at is that the Anglo-Saxons of Great Britain and America are so educated and brought up as to be better equipped for the battle of life than Frenchmen and Germans. The secret of Anglo-Saxon superiority is the fact that Anglo-Saxon peoples belong not to the communistic formation, but to the particularistic formation."—*Literary World.*

Dewar, G. A. B. Wild Life in Hampshire Highlands. *Il.* (2 *col.*) '99. *Haddon Hall Lib.* **CS** T42·2

"Bird-lovers, entomologists, sportsmen—all who feel and delight in the million and one charms of the country, will find something to please them in Mr. D.'s volume." —*Literary World.*

Gould, S. Baring-. Book of the West. *Il.* '99. **CS** T42·3

V. 1. Devon. V. 2. Cornwall.

"The v. are not guide books ; they are not histories ; they are just entertaining miscellanies on all manner of things pertaining to life and tradition in Devon and Cornwall."—*Literary World.* Many of the c. have references at end on books to be consulted.

[1] C = Central, S = South Norwood, T = Thornton Heath, being the libraries possessing copies.

Class K.—Prose Fiction.

Barr (Robert) Countess Tekla - - - 12441
Romance of mediæval Germany in time of Rudolph of Hapsburg.

Boothby (Guy) Pharos. *ill.* - - - 12503
Re-incarnation of an Egyptian magician of the time of Pharaoh. Hypnotism. The Plague. Chiefly England and Egypt, present-time.

Cambridge (Ada) Materfamilias - - - 12407
Tale of Australian life.

Carleton (Wm.) The Black Prophet, a tale of the Irish famine of 1846-47. *ill.* - - - 12490
First published 1847.

Chambers (R. W.) Ashes of Empire - - 12423
Adventures of American war-correspondents in Paris during the Siege and the Commune of 1870-71.

Cobban (J. M.) Pursued by the Law - - 12489
London, Lancashire. Tale of an inventor falsely charged with murder.

279. **Co-operative Cataloguing.**—An attempt to do this work of cataloguing and annotation for non-fictional works on a general scale was made by the *Library World* in 1901 but had to be abandoned chiefly owing to want of support from book-publishers. This scheme provided for exhibiting as well as classifying and cataloguing the books, and is well worthy of being put on record in this place. In 1906 the scheme was revived as the Book Selector, forming part of the *Library World*, and seems more promising than before.

280. A somewhat similar scheme for co-operative cataloguing was elaborated in the United States by a committee of the American Library Association, but had to be abandoned for lack of support. It was intended to provide printed cards, ready for use, of all new books, at a subscription of so much per card, or hundred cards, which could be incorporated into any existing card catalogue, and so maintain it in an up-to-date condition, without troubling the library staff to make fresh cards for every new book. This scheme was not carried out by its original

promoters, but a method of issuing printed catalogue cards for new books has been successfully started by the Library of Congress at Washington.

281. Another method of publishing lists of books added to libraries which has been adopted in a number of places is to obtain the co-operation of the local press in printing occasional lists of new books. This can usually always be done in the smaller towns, but rarely in places where there is great pressure upon the space at the command of newspapers.

FIG. 87.—Standard Library Handwriting (Section 283).

282. **Printing Specifications.**—A useful form is given for this in Quinn's *Manual of Library Cataloguing*, but it is chiefly intended for catalogues in dictionary form. The best way to obtain estimates for printing class lists or classified catalogues is to have specimen pages printed of the body of the catalogue and the index, exactly as they are required, and spaced out with the exact number of lines per page. If the manuscript copy is not ready, estimates can be obtained from the printers per page, according to the specimen pages, and this is a very fair way of

tendering. If the copy is ready estimates should be obtained for the whole job, including covers, in the style of the specimen pages. A printer can soon tell how much print a manuscript will run to, especially if the copy has been prepared in a uniform manner, with ten or twelve slips mounted on the folio. Information on the preparation of catalogue copy for the printer will be found in Quinn's *Manual* and the *Library World* (vol. i., p. 64).

283. **Preparation of Catalogue Copy.**—In preparing copy for printed catalogues certain practical details are worth brief notice. It is usual to make a separate entry for each book on paper slips of a uniform size, say 5 by 3 inches, or they can be narrower if thought necessary. On these the entries are made, according to the cataloguing rules in force, and each book is entered under its author, subject or subjects, title, form or other headings according to the kind of catalogue which has to be compiled. It is a most valuable aid to use a standard handwriting, and the specimen opposite (Fig. 87) can be recommended for imitation as being both clear and comparatively easy to write. An author entry should be made like this example :—

DANA (John Cotton) Notes on bookbinding for libraries. Chicago. 1906. *ill.*

M 880.

A subject entry like this :—

BOOKBINDING. Dana (J. C.) Notes on bookbinding for libraries. 1906. *ill.*

M 880.

Or, in the case of a classified catalogue, like this :—

M 880 PRACTICAL BOOKBINDING.

DANA (J. C.) Notes on bookbinding for libraries. 1906. *ill.*

Title entries are made in two chief forms, for dictionary catalogues, and for the indexes to classified catalogues, as follow :—

Insulinde . . . the Eastern Archipelago, by Anna Forbes. P 200.

Insulinde. Forbes. P 200.

When the slips are all written it is only necessary to arrange them in alphabetical or classified order to produce the necessary "copy" for the printer. In most cases it is advisable to mount the slips on suitable sheets of mounting paper, in columns of about 10 to 20, in order to prevent the risk of loss, and to give the printer more convenient "copy" to work from.

284. Reference List of Authorities : —

Andrews (C. W.) Printed card catalogues. Int. Conf., 1897, p. 126.
Central card cataloguing. (Proposal to send out printed cards for new books from a central bureau.) L. J., v. 18, p. 508.
Dewey (M.) Printed catalogue cards from a central bureau. L. (N. S.), v. 2, p. 130.
Jast (L. S.) The problem of printed catalogues. L., 1901, p. 141.
The Printed catalog cards of the Library of Congress. [Symposium.] L. J., v. 31, p. 260.

CHAPTER XVIII.

MECHANICAL METHODS OF DISPLAYING CATALOGUES.

285. There are five chief methods of displaying manuscript and printed catalogues which merit attention, and each of these is represented by several variations of the same principle. It is needless to attempt to describe every device which has been introduced for the purpose of displaying catalogues and providing for additions and expansion, and we shall limit our selection to those which are best known, most effective or most used. The five chief methods are the Page, Card, Sheaf, Placard and Panoramic, a nomenclature suggested in an article which appeared in 1893 in the *Library*, pp. 45-66.

286. Page Catalogues.— The most elementary form of the page catalogue is the ordinary manuscript book, with stepped thumb-index or simple alphabetical division of the leaves, so many being allowed for each letter of the alphabet. This is an unsuitable variety for a public library, and should not be used for cataloguing purposes.

The British Museum public catalogue consists of large guard books, in which printed or manuscript slips of book entries are mounted on the tough cartridge paper leaves, so as to leave space for additions. When a page becomes congested, the slips can be lifted by means of a paper-knife, as they are secured only at the ends, another leaf can be inserted on the adjoining guard, and the old and additional slips can be redistributed over the whole of the newly created space. This catalogue represents but one alphabet, or copy of the catalogue, in some hundreds of volumes, and each volume only holds a small portion of the alphabet, as from Bal to Bec. One copy of the

catalogue thus serves many readers at one time. By distributing the entries over a number of volumes, congestion is less likely to occur than in catalogues complete in themselves in one or two volumes.

A variation of this system of guard book is to be seen in

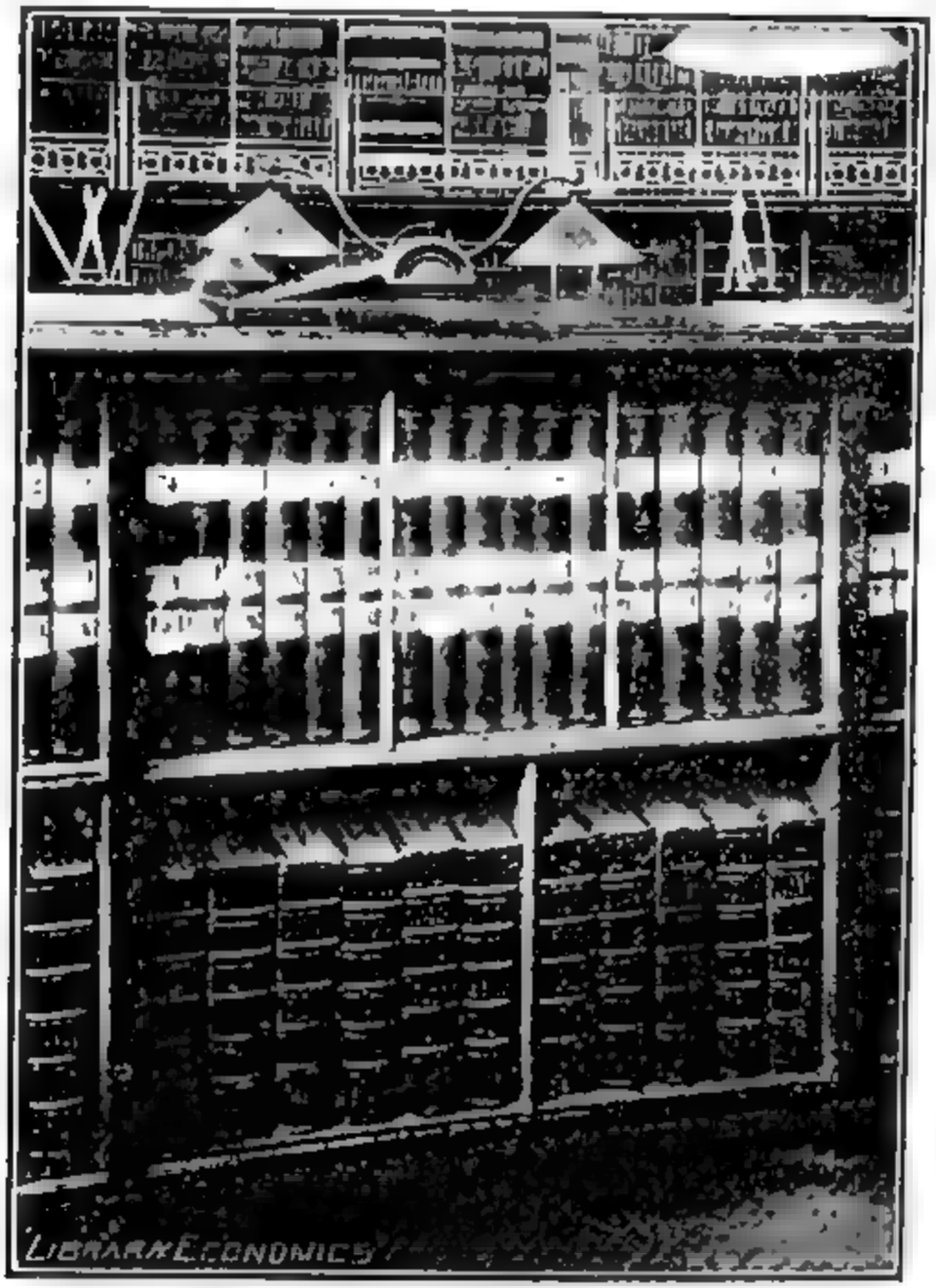


FIG. 88.—Catalogue Shelves, British Museum (Section 286).

some public libraries where the whole of the catalogue is mounted in one volume. A number of copies of this style of page catalogue must be provided to meet public needs, and it is, on the whole, a less serviceable and much more expensive form than the catalogue on similar lines spread over a number of volumes. A good example of this kind of page catalogue is to

be seen in the Mitchell Library, Glasgow, where it exists in the form of huge guard books displayed on special stands.

287. To overcome the difficulty of inserting additional leaves at pleasure in page catalogues, various kinds of adjustable albums, with movable leaves, have been introduced. At the Bibliothèque Nationale, in Paris, and elsewhere a catalogue is used consisting of thick, hinged leaves, punched at the back and laced into the boards, or secured by means of a screw fastening.

288. Another variety of this French binder designed to secure adjustability of leaves is that shown below in the illustration (Fig. 89), wherein the leaves are clamped by the pressure of two wooden slats, which are drawn together by means of two or more endless screws turned by a key.

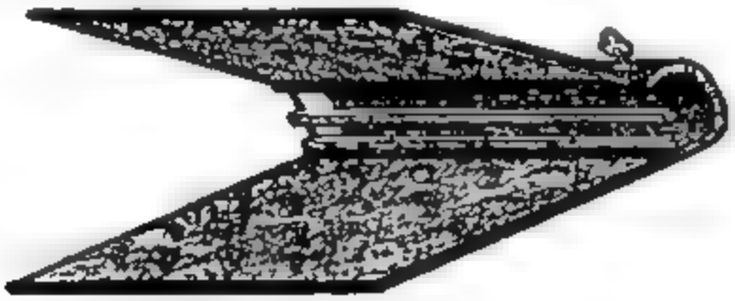


FIG. 89.—Adjustable Screw Binder (Section 288).

For this kind of binder it is necessary to notch the leaves to correspond to the screws.

The principle of the sheaf binders (Section 299) can also be applied to page catalogues, and very successful page books have been made up from the form illustrated in Sections 303-4.

The whole of the devices just described are so arranged that leaves can be inserted, to a more or less limited extent, at any point. The British Museum type does not provide for unlimited additions, nor for any subsequent division of volumes, without much trouble and rebinding. The French and other adjustable leaved binders do allow for unlimited insertions, subject to the condition that the matter mounted on the pages must be redistributed. In an adjustable book new leaves can be inserted at any place till the volume is full, and then the contents may be divided and two books used, this subdivision and spreading being continued as the entries increase in number.

289. A form of page catalogue combining the powers of inserting new leaves at any point, and moving single entries about without having to paste them down or lift them up, is called the Rudolph Indexer. It consists in its book form of thick cardboard leaves, to which metal flanges are secured, down each margin. Each leaf is provided with a double-hinged fastening, which enables it to be hooked on to any adjoining leaf, so as to form a volume of any desired thickness, to which a pair of covers can be attached. The catalogue entries are written or printed on narrow cards, and these are slipped under the flanges which secure them by either end. Fig. 90 shows at a glance the appearance of this form of page catalogue.

FIG. 90.—Rudolph Indexer Book (Section 289).

290. There are certain advantages claimed for page catalogues which may be enumerated here. The chief is that a large group of entries can be scanned with one sweep of the eye, thereby facilitating the rapid finding of any particular entry. Another is that, being in book form, it is more easily manipulated than other forms of catalogue. Its comparative cheapness is sometimes put forward as an advantage over other forms, particularly cards, but on this point it is not wise to assume cheapness where so much time and labour are necessarily involved. As regards the claim to rapidity in turning up entries because a whole page is exposed at a time, there are considerable doubts as to its soundness. General experience of such catalogues as the British Museum is that, owing to the

number of entries, the occasional congestions and disorders where double columns of entries exist, it is much more difficult to find a given entry than in the case of cards or slips properly guided and in accurate alphabetical order. This point may be further illustrated by the case of men or women who are not adepts at using alphabetical lists, and who turn up a particular word in a dictionary with much difficulty and loss of time.

291. Card Catalogues.—Cards for indexing purposes have been used for many years, and are not an American invention, as is generally, but very erroneously, assumed. Because card indexes have been more widely adopted for business purposes in the United States, on a recognized system, with all kinds of guides, safeguards and other accessories, it has been the custom to give the full credit for this form of catalogue to the Americans. As a matter of fact, cards for library cataloguing purposes were used in France in the middle of the eighteenth century; they were used in Trinity College, Dublin, early in the nineteenth century; and in 1852 they were introduced into the Bank of England for commercial indexing. The plan of keeping cards or slips on edge in boxes or drawers loosely, thereby giving unlimited means of expansion and intercalation, must have occurred to many minds as the best means of maintaining perpetual alphabetical order. Single cards not attached in any way, save temporarily, possess unlimited powers of movability, and can be arranged in any kind of order when assembled in numbers, because each card can be taken away or moved about or fresh cards added at any point in a series, without upsetting any adjoining card, or interrupting alphabetical order.

The cards, when arranged in alphabetical order, are separated into small divisions by means of projecting guides, on which are printed subject or author or other words or class numbers, which serve the same purpose as the running catch-words of a dictionary, only they are much more effective, because more conspicuous. They are secured by means of a rod which passes through holes punched in the lower part of the cards, and the rod is either locked or screwed into the back or front of the drawer.

292. The old plan of storing the cards consisted of placing them in the drawers of a cabinet, and marking the contents of each drawer plainly on the outside. Fig. 91 is an illustration of a card cabinet, showing the usual guides and sliding runners

FIG. 91.—Card Catalogue Cabinet with Sliding Extension Runners (Section 292).

to enable the whole extent of a drawer to be pulled free of the cabinet for purposes of examination.

293. Another form, which is illustrated below (Fig. 92), has many improvements recently introduced. Among them may be mentioned an adjustable angle-block, for supporting the cards

at a suitable angle for easy consultation: this can be screwed up tight at any point in a drawer, so as to retain a smaller or larger number of cards in place; a special form of spring-rod on which the cards are strung or filed, easily removable, but still capable of safeguarding the contents of a drawer against misuse by the public; a special automatic catch at the front of the drawer to prevent it being pulled out accidentally, but which does not prevent any drawer from being taken away from the cabinet if required. Another important improvement introduced

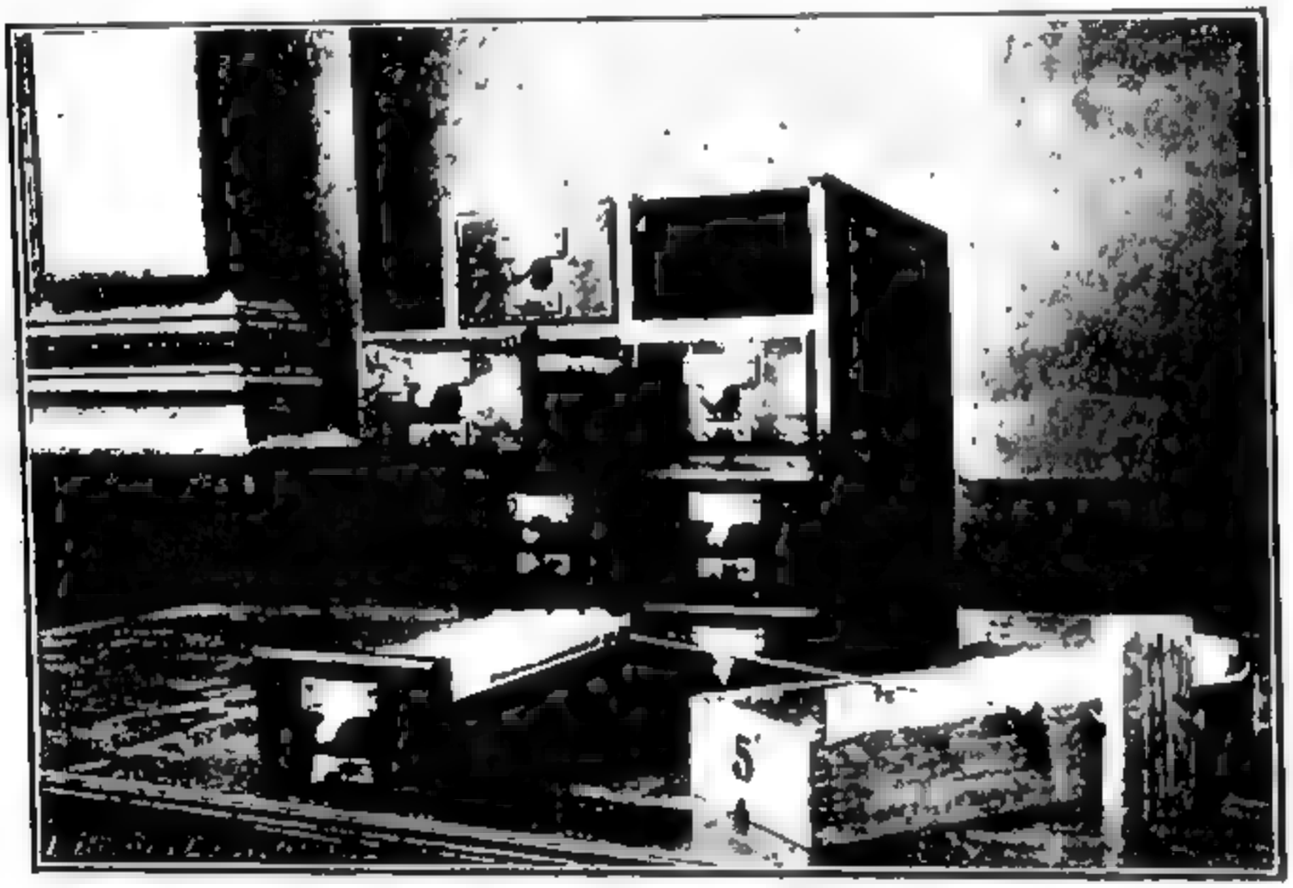


FIG. 92.—Cabinet of Card Trays (Section 293).

in 1902 was the modification in the sides of trays, whereby the woodwork was cut down so as to lighten the tray and enable the cards to be handled from the sides as well as the top. This variety is known as the "Sideless Tray". (Fig. 93).

294. The card catalogue in cabinets of fixed drawers is not, in some ways, such an effective arrangement as detachable trays or drawers stored in a suitable rack or cabinet. The fixed-drawer plan has various disadvantages, chief among which is the serious one that a single person consulting a cabinet may monopolize from 6,000 to 10,000 entries, according to

the number of drawers forming a tier. When there are four to six drawers in a tier it is impossible to adjust them so that both tall and short persons will find them equally accessible. The short person cannot examine the upper drawers without standing on tiptoes or a stool, and the tall person must either dislocate his spine, or sit down in order to use the lower drawers. Then, only a few persons can use the catalogue at one time, as two persons will practically cover up three tiers, thus in some cases cutting off from other users at least 20,000 or more entries. There is also the difficulty of filling up application forms for books, as no proper writing surfaces are

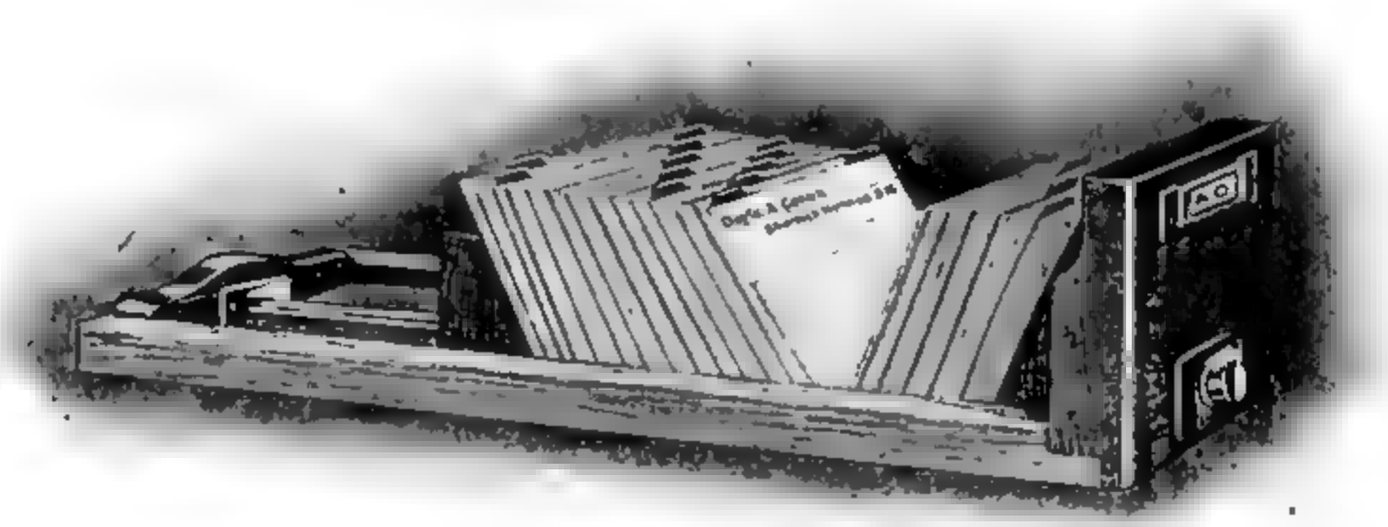


Fig. 93.—Sideless Card Catalogue Tray (Section 293).

available. In addition there is also the difficulty of obtaining a good light on the lower drawers, and the large amount of space occupied by a large cabinet. When printed entries are mounted on blank cards, it is advisable to "guard" them, in order to balance the additional thickness of the upper part, which causes bulging, by pricking the fronts of the cards, or embossing them by means of a blunt awl, thus:—

295. For commercial indexing purposes the card cabinet is a useful device, but for public libraries, especially those which are greatly patronized and where a manuscript catalogue in card form has been substituted for a printed catalogue, a more flexible and less rigid system is required. This will be found, so far as cards are concerned, in the various kinds of trays described and figured below. A good form, which is well safeguarded and not too heavy or clumsy, will be found in a tray which is provided with all necessary accessories in the

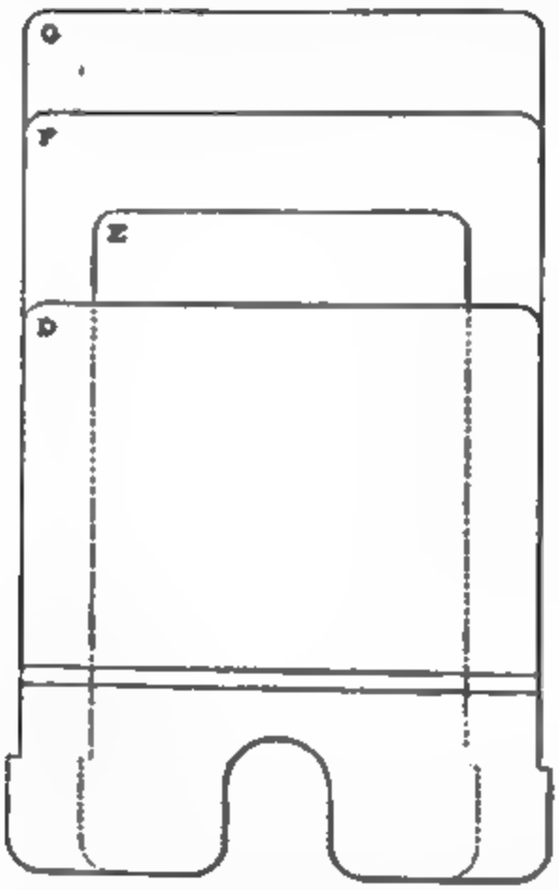


FIG. 94.—Cards for Bonnange Catalogue Trays (Section 296).

form of locking-rod, guides, adjustable angle-block, outside label-holder, and felt pads to prevent it from scratching table-tops or other furniture. This kind of tray can be kept in racks of a convenient size, and it possesses the advantage of being detachable from the fitting, so that users can remove it to a table and not obstruct other seekers, or be obstructed in turn (Fig. 92, Section 293).

296. A French form of card-catalogue tray was invented by Mr. F. Bonnange, of Paris, in 1866 and improved in 1874. In this, the method of securing the cards differs from the rod

threading through perforations, as in English and American models. The cards are hinged, and have shoulders formed in the slightly thicker lower portion, as shown in the illustration (Fig. 94), which is also slotted to clear the fastening. The hinged cards shoulder into side grooves formed in the wooden trays, and the slotted portion is placed astride a powerful endless screw, which traverses the tray from end to

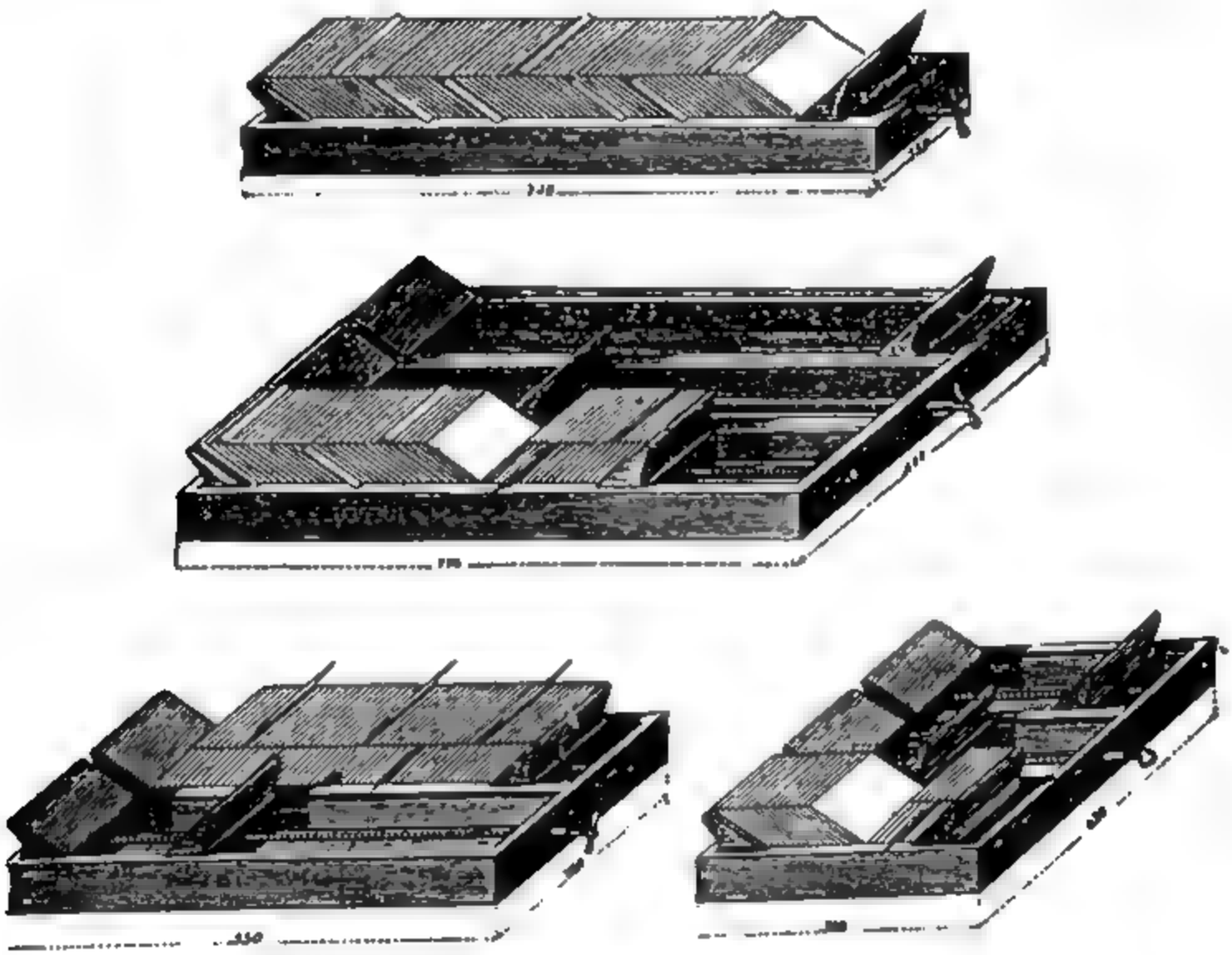


FIG. 95.—Bounange Card Catalogue Trays (Section 296).

end, and carries a suitable block which acts as a travelling clamp. The screw is worked by means of a key, and when turned to the right the block travels forward along the screw till the cards are all firmly clamped between it and the end of the tray; when turned to the left the block travels back and so releases the cards to enable insertions to be made. The upper portion of the cards being hinged and consequently free of the block, are not clamped, and can be turned over

readily for purposes of consultation. Guides, alphabetical or numerical, may be inserted either above or at either side of the cards.

297. An Italian card tray on a somewhat similar principle to this was invented by Mr. A. Staderini, of Rome, in 1890.

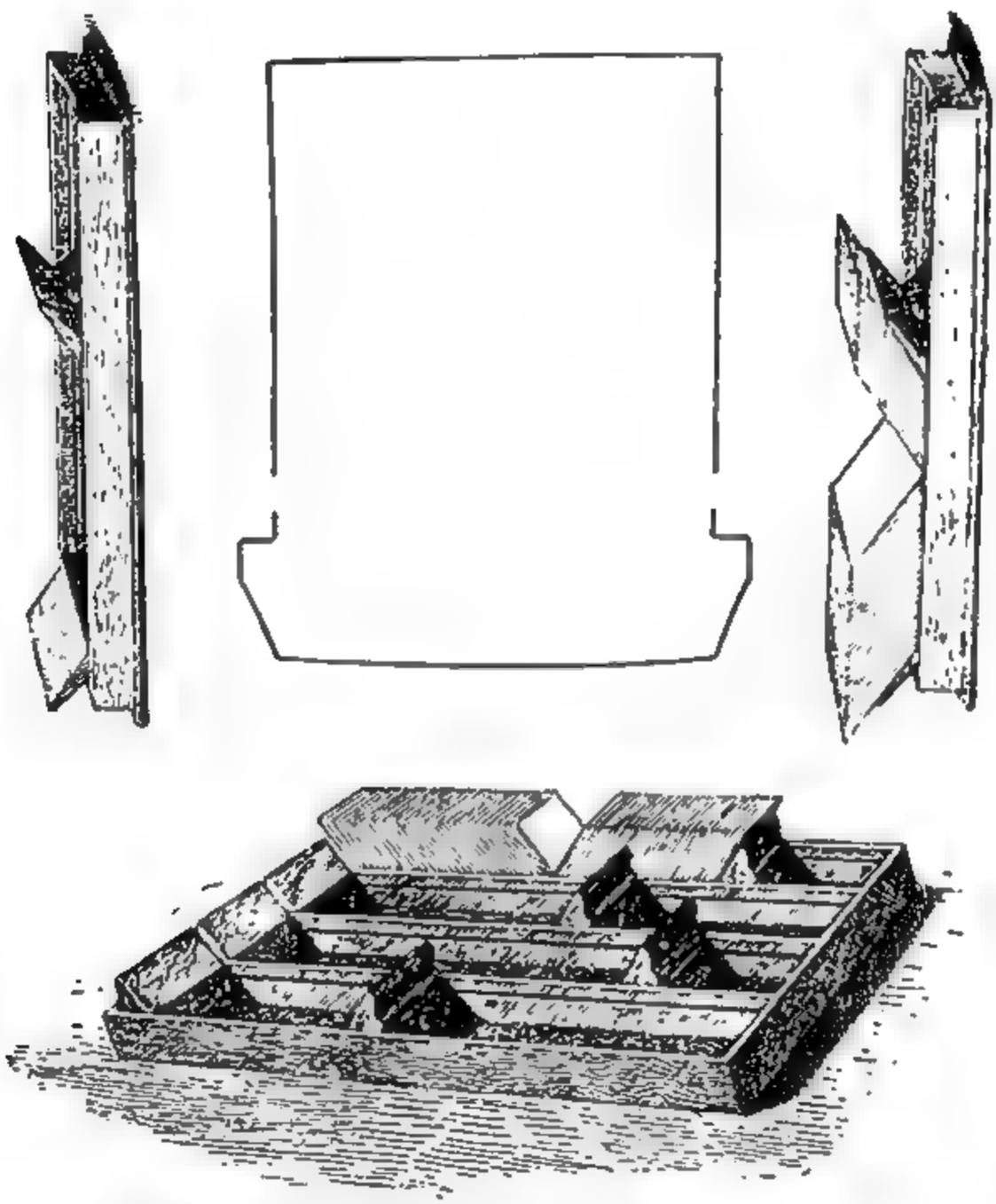


FIG. 96—Staderini Card Trays and Hinged Card (Section 297).

It differs from the Bonnange tray in having a sliding-block gearing with a ratchet which is fastened along the bottom and made to engage or disengage by means of a key. The cards are similar in principle to those of the Bonnange system, save that the lower hinged half is not slotted. The illustration

(Fig. 96) will explain better than words the appearance and other accessories of this tray.

Both the Bonnange and Staderini methods share in common an advantage of some importance, *viz.*, the clamped lower portion of the card forms a counterfoil to show what has been taken, should a card by accident or design be removed or torn off. The accession number or brief title of the book can be written on the clamped portion of the card, and so will safeguard against loss and imperfections. This is an advantage not possessed by any of the ordinary card methods, because when cards are torn from the rods they leave no trace, and become lost for ever, leaving it very problematical whether a catalogue is perfect or not.

298. A card catalogue on a somewhat similar principle to

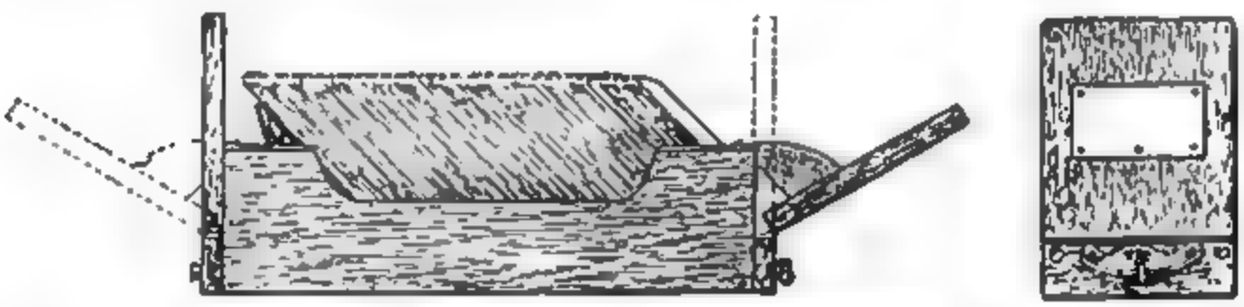


FIG. 97.—Duplex Card Catalogue (Section 298).

the French and Italian forms just described is known as the Duplex Card Catalogue, and was invented in England to enable both sides of the cards to be used, thereby considerably enlarging the capacity of the catalogue, while materially reducing its bulk. It is fitted with falling ends which act as angle-blocks; a travelling angle-block which can be adjusted and locked at any point; a locking-rod for threading the cards upon in order to secure them; and xylonite label-holders. The cards are larger than ordinary catalogue cards, and instead of being hinged are simply creased at a short distance above the rod holes. This gives a slight bulge and enables the cards to have the necessary play. The trays are held lengthways in a position parallel to the body, instead of at right angles as in the case of ordinary trays, and the cards or leaves are simply turned over like those of a book.

299. Sheaf Catalogues.—The sheaf catalogue is not so widely used as the card system in Britain, but it has exactly the same advantages as regards the power of expansion and intercalation. It aims at combining the advantages of both book and card catalogues, by dividing the catalogue into handy sections so that the maximum number of readers can consult it at one time; providing means for continuous expansion in alphabetical order; safeguarding the contents of sections; reducing the amount of storage space occupied; and enabling users to handle and turn over the catalogue like the leaves of an ordinary book. The introduction of ordinary paper slips, which can be used in any typewriter, which can be easily stored in various forms of binders in book form, and which

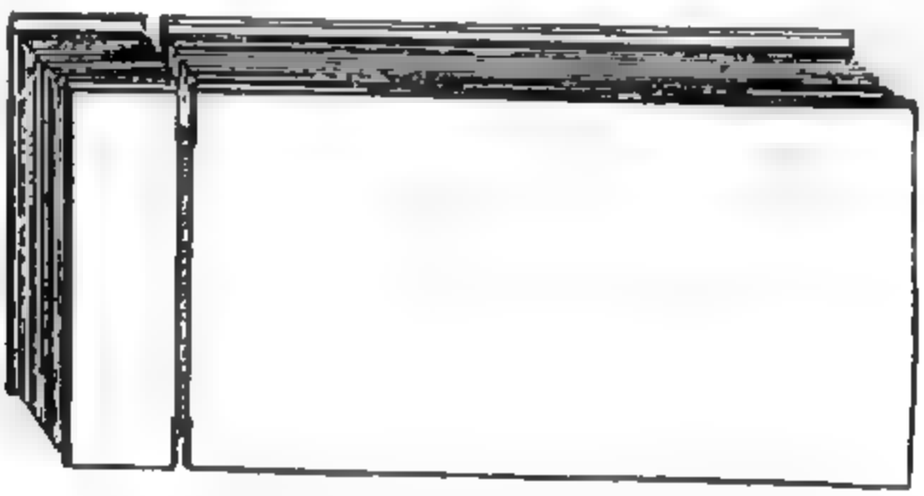


FIG. 98.—Leyden Slip Holder (Section 300).

can be added to in manuscript without undoing the holder, is a real economy in library administration which has not received the attention it deserves. While 1,000 entries in a card catalogue will occupy from 750 to 840 cubic inches of space, the sheaf-holders most in use will not take up more than fifty-six cubic inches of space for the same number of entries. The writing surface is also much larger.

300. The slip catalogue known as the LEYDEN, from its first use in the University Library of Leyden, in Holland, in 1871, consists of bundles of slips, notched as shown in the illustration (Fig. 98), and secured by means of cord or cat gut. The outer boards are hinged, and notched to correspond with the slips, and the cord is tied firmly round the volume

and into the slots, so as to bind the whole. These Leyden holders are only adapted for private or staff use, and must

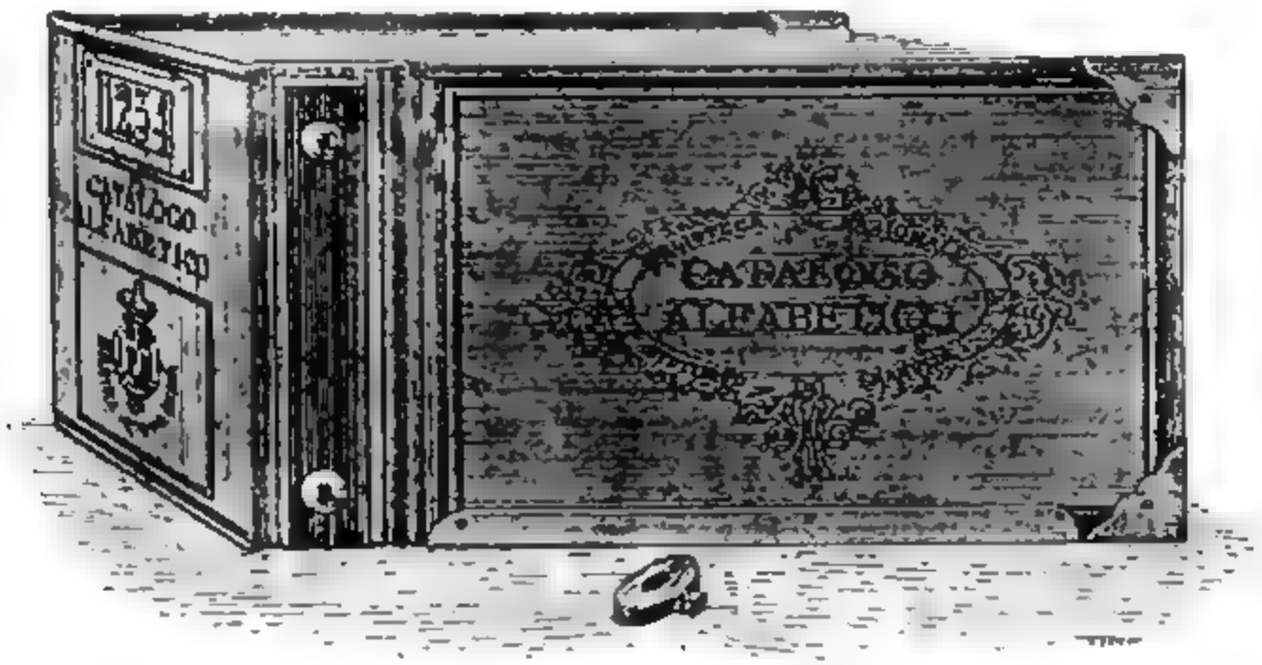


FIG. 99.—Volume of Staderini Sheaf Catalogue (Section 301).

FIG. 100.—Staderini Sheaf Catalogue in the Victor Emmanuel Library, Rome (Section 301).

be kept in very thin sections, as the volumes get more loose and insecure the thicker they are made. As a means of holding any kind of temporary slip, this is, however, a useful device.

301. A much more mechanically perfect slip catalogue-holder is the screw-binder invented by Mr. A. Staderini, of Rome. It comprises a fixed back and boards, to which two iron screw-bolts are attached. On these the slips, which are perforated to correspond with the bolts, are threaded, and the books are secured by means of brass screw-caps which fasten the boards to the bolts, and so make the volume rigid and the slips secure. These volumes are numbered and kept in pigeon-holes, which bear the volume numbers and

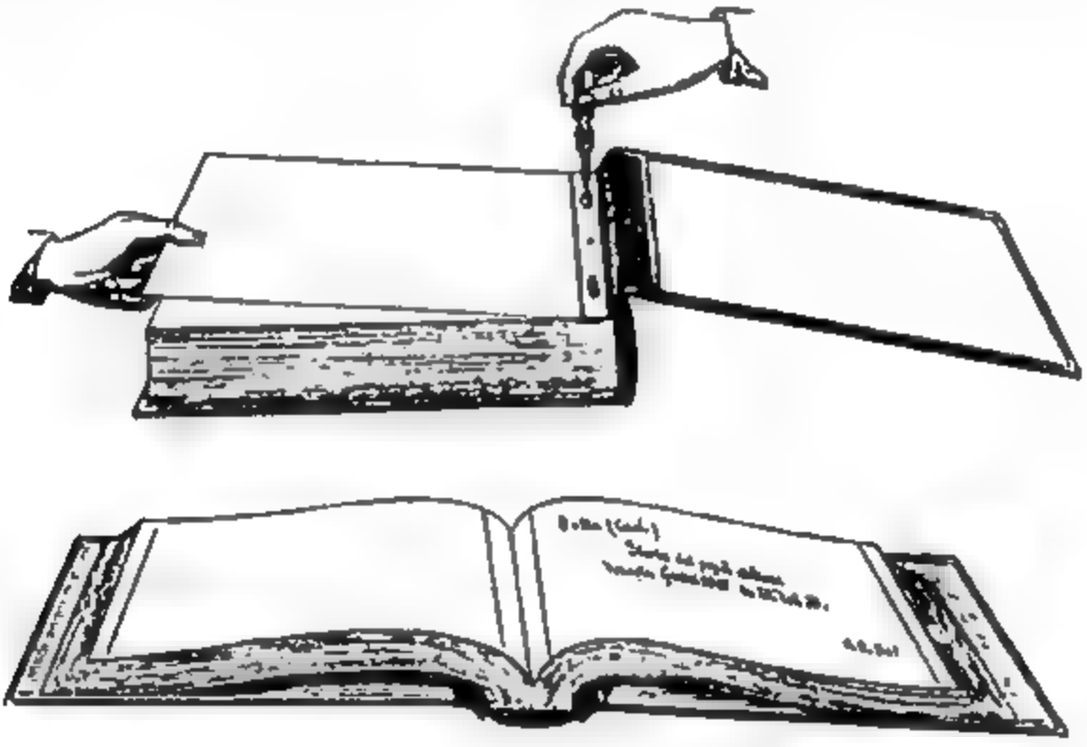


Fig. 101.—Sacconi Sheaf Catalogue (Section 302).

letters denoting the section of the alphabet contained in each sheaf. (Figs. 99-100.)

302. A "sheaf"-holder on exactly the same principle, but with a different and neater fastening, was invented in 1891 by Mrs. Sacconi-Ricci, of Florence. This holder also fits into numbered pigeon-holes, and consists of perforated slips threaded on to two upright rods, which are kept in place by means of a sliding bar which, when screwed into place, locks the slips and boards into one compact volume. (Fig. 101.)

303. The most used and oldest of the British sheaf catalogues is the "Adjustable Catalogue-Holder," which was invented about 1892. This has a flexible leather back, and

the slips are bound and unbound by the contracting and expanding action of two cylindrical screws, turned by means of a metal key. It is not necessary, as in the case of all other sheaf-holders, to undo this one in order to remove the slips when additions are being made, the loosening of the screws being all that is necessary. The slips are punched at the back edge with bayonet-shaped or keyed slots, which give sufficient holding power when the screws are tightened to clamp the boards and slips into one solid and firm volume.

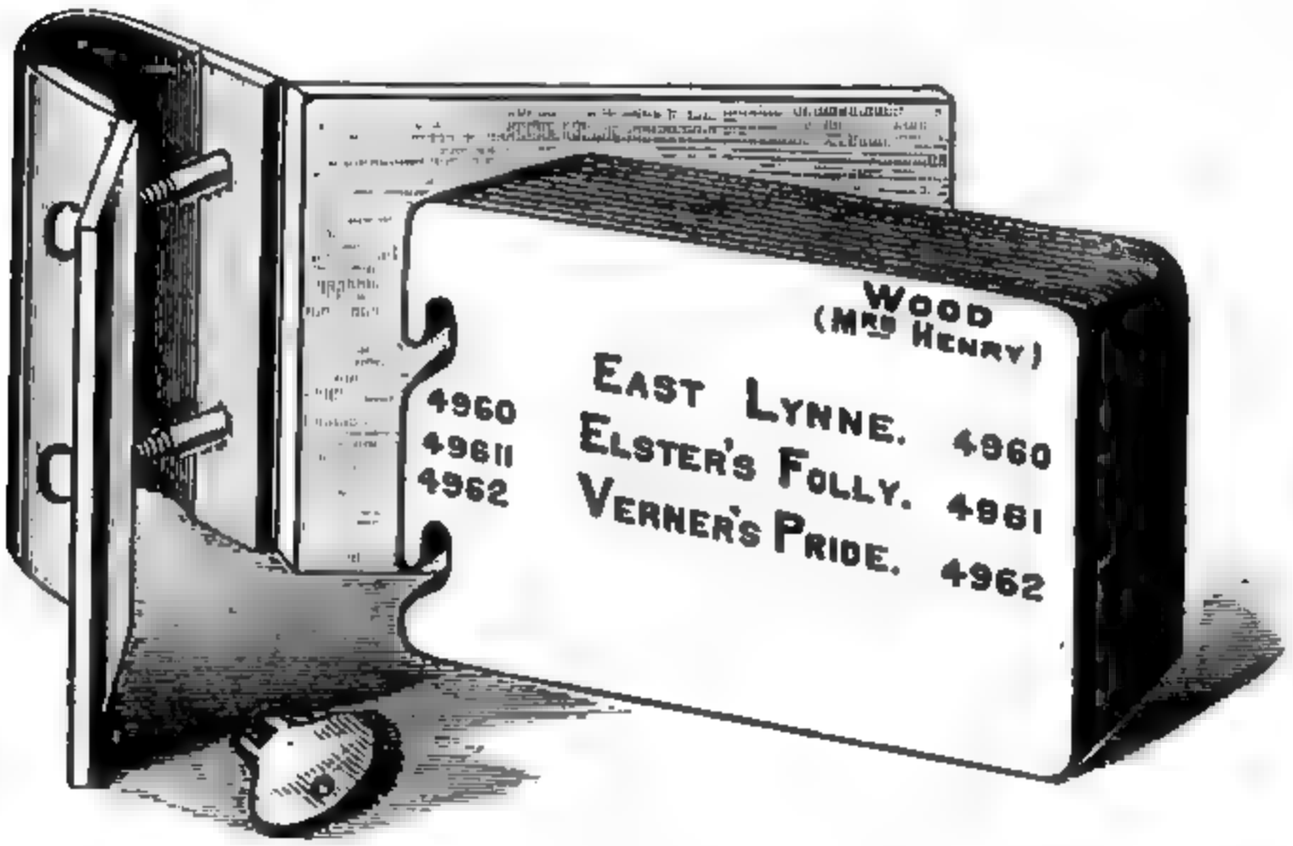


FIG. 102.—Adjustable Sheaf Catalogue, Clamp Fastening (Section 303).

The book numbers, if written on the clamped portion of the slips, will remain in the sheaf if entries should be wilfully torn out, and no catalogue could be rendered imperfect without the knowledge of the librarian. Xylonite label-holders are attached to the back of this form of sheaf, which enable contents labels to be changed at will, without pasting or damaging the back. A rack or pigeon-holes can be provided in which to store these sheafs in numbered, alphabetical or class order.

304. The most recent form of catalogue sheaf is that illustrated in Figs. 103-4. It differs from the adjustable in having

a rigid back, and but one screw. In other respects it is perhaps easier to manipulate than the binders just described.

The holder consists of a strong wooden back to which two stout covers are attached by means of hinges, specially designed to guard against injury to the covers. Within the holder a special form of brass screw-fitting is mounted, upon which the

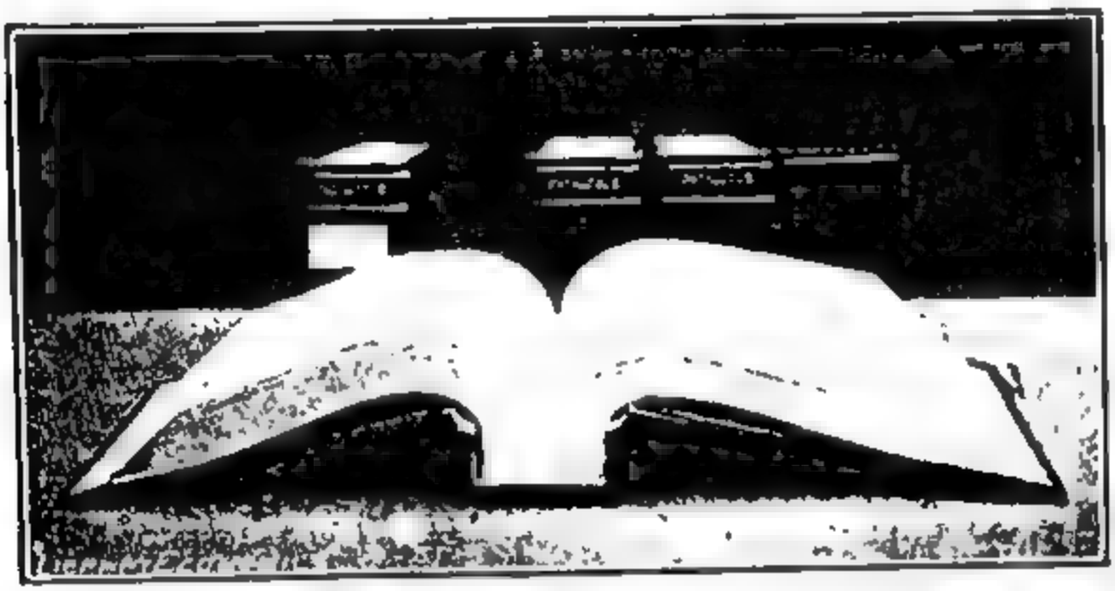


FIG. 103.—Adjustable Sheaf Catalogue, Open for Consultation (Section 304).

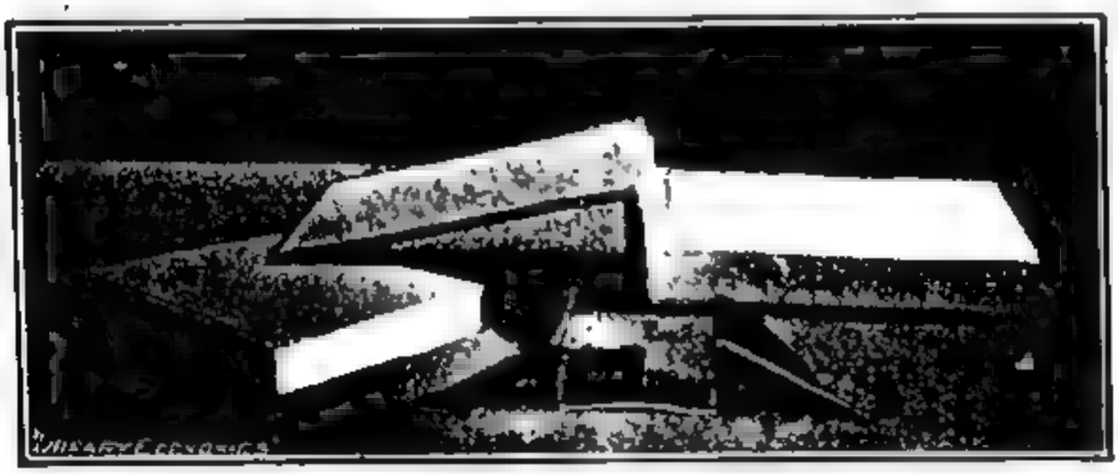


FIG. 104.—Adjustable Sheaf Catalogue, Open for making Additions with Cradle and Key (Section 304).

slips are threaded, so that when the covers are closed the whole sheaf is firmly secured by means of a special screw. A few turns of the key suffice to lock or open the holder.

305. A very good way of maintaining a sheaf catalogue for public use, especially in open-access libraries, is to provide a sheaf or sheaves for each class of literature, and enter the

books in class order, using both sides of the slips for entries of

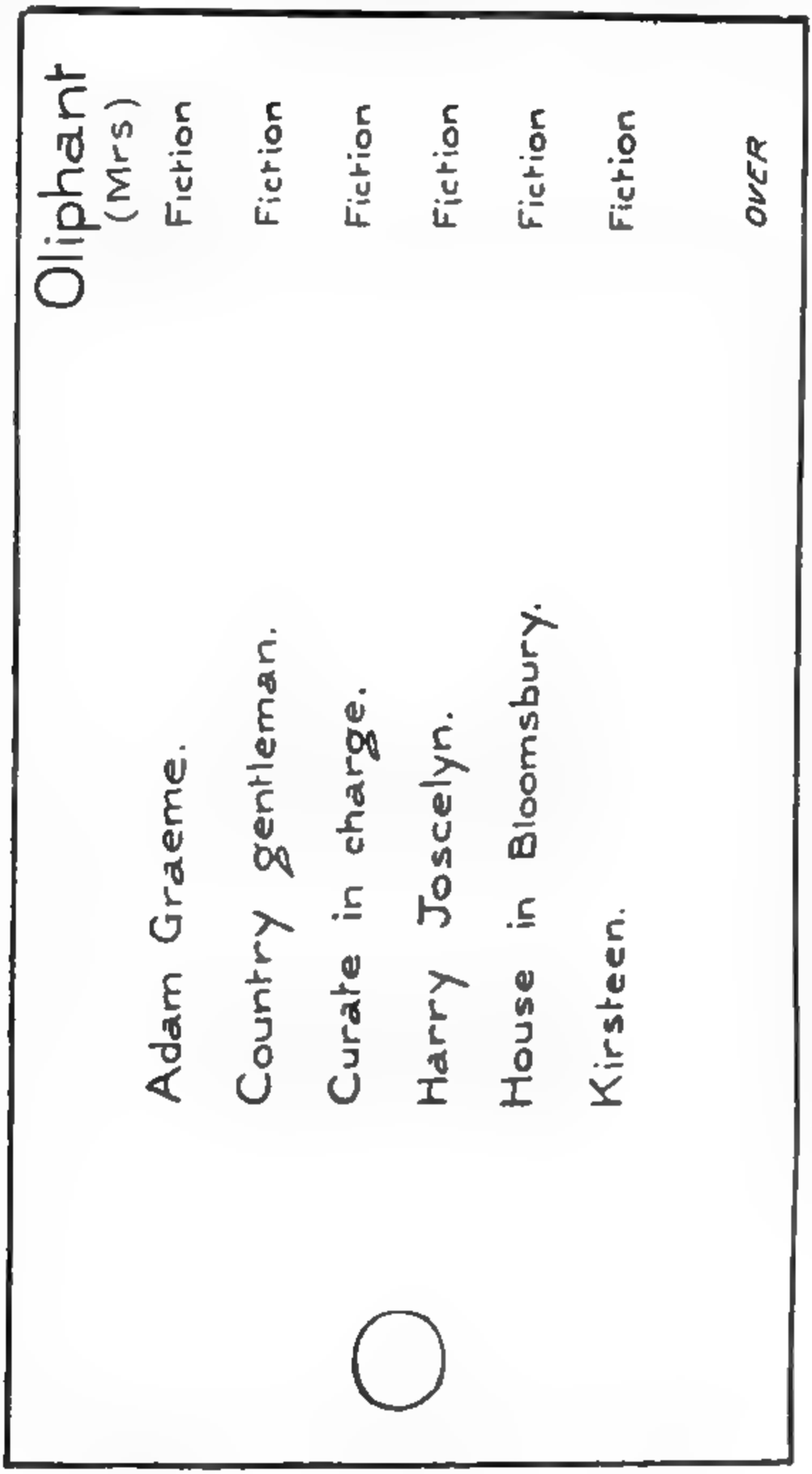


Fig. 105.—Front of Sheaf Catalogue Author Slip (Section 305).

small topics. These sheaves can be kept on the shelves with their classes. To this an author and title index can be provided

in one alphabet, each author being kept on one slip or more, and both sides of the slips being used to ensure economy of space, and enable readers to find at once any particular book. Thus, on the front of the slip an author entry might appear as in Fig. 105, while on the back, or reverse side, the titles would be continued as on Fig. 106.

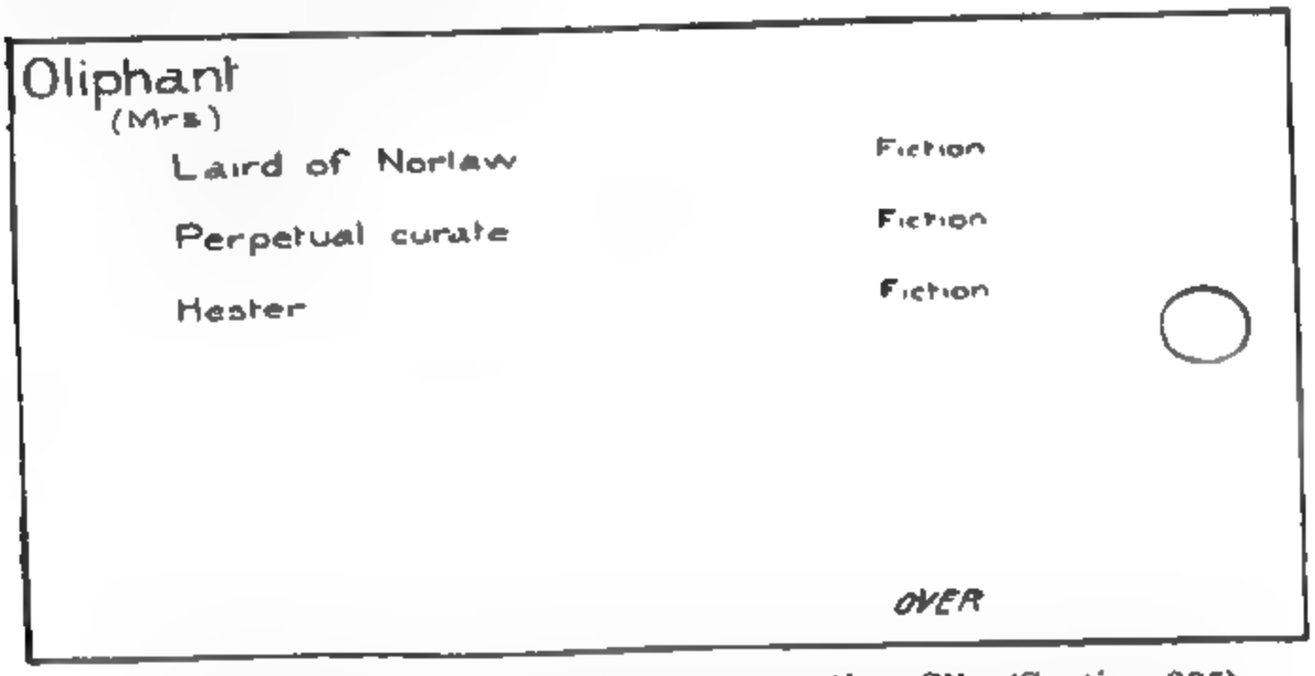


FIG. 106.—Reverse of Sheaf Catalogue Author Slip (Section 305).

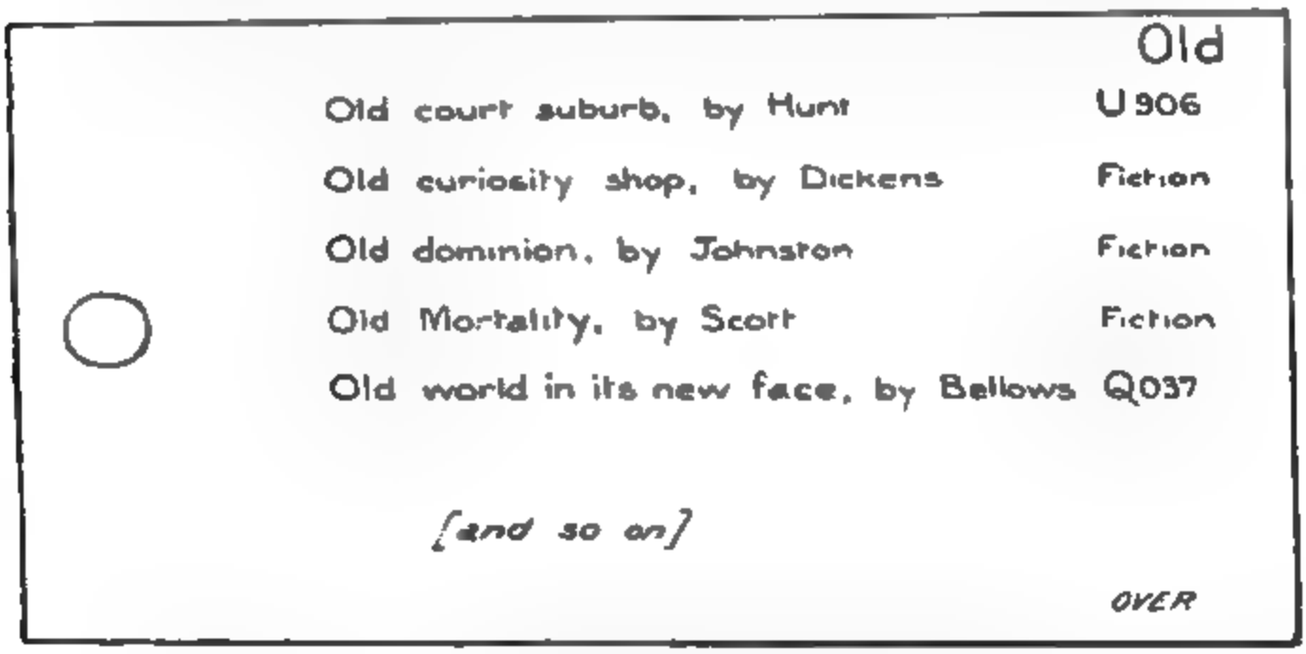


FIG. 107.—Sheaf Catalogue Title Slip (Section 305).

The matter of strict alphabetical order in such index slips is of little consequence, owing to the concentration of entries which enables a consultor to note the contents with one sweep of the eye.

Title entries can be done in similar fashion, the leading word being used as the index or catch-heading, thus (Fig. 107).

Here, again, strict alphabetical order need not be maintained,

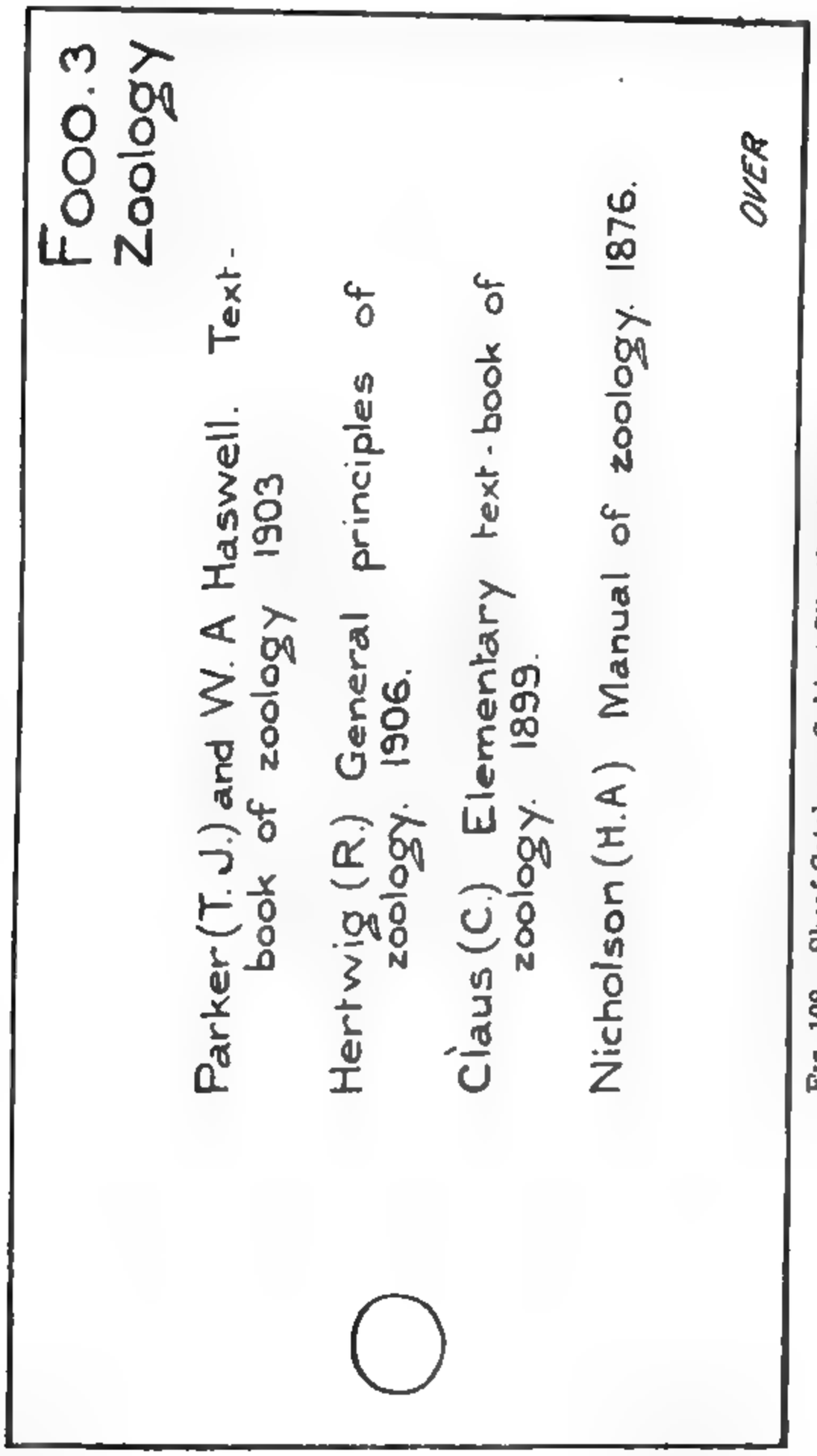

F000.3
Zoology
Parker (T. J.) and W. A Haswell. Text-book of zoology 1903
Hertwig (R.) General principles of zoology. 1906.
Claus (C.) Elementary text-book of zoology. 1899.
Nicholson (H.A) Manual of zoology. 1876.
OVER

Fig. 108.—Sheaf Catalogue Subject Slip (Section 305).

owing to the comparatively small compass in which the entries are displayed.

The classified sheaves can be kept in the same manner, or, if it is felt that a separate slip should be written for each book, to ensure strict order, this of course can be done. But it is at best doubtful if this is necessary save in very large subjects. For example, entries like the above are quite easily discovered (Fig. 108).

Where annotations on a large scale are employed, it is best to make use of a separate slip for each entry.

In all kinds of sheaf catalogues a fair margin should be allowed round the entries, to preserve them against finger-marks.

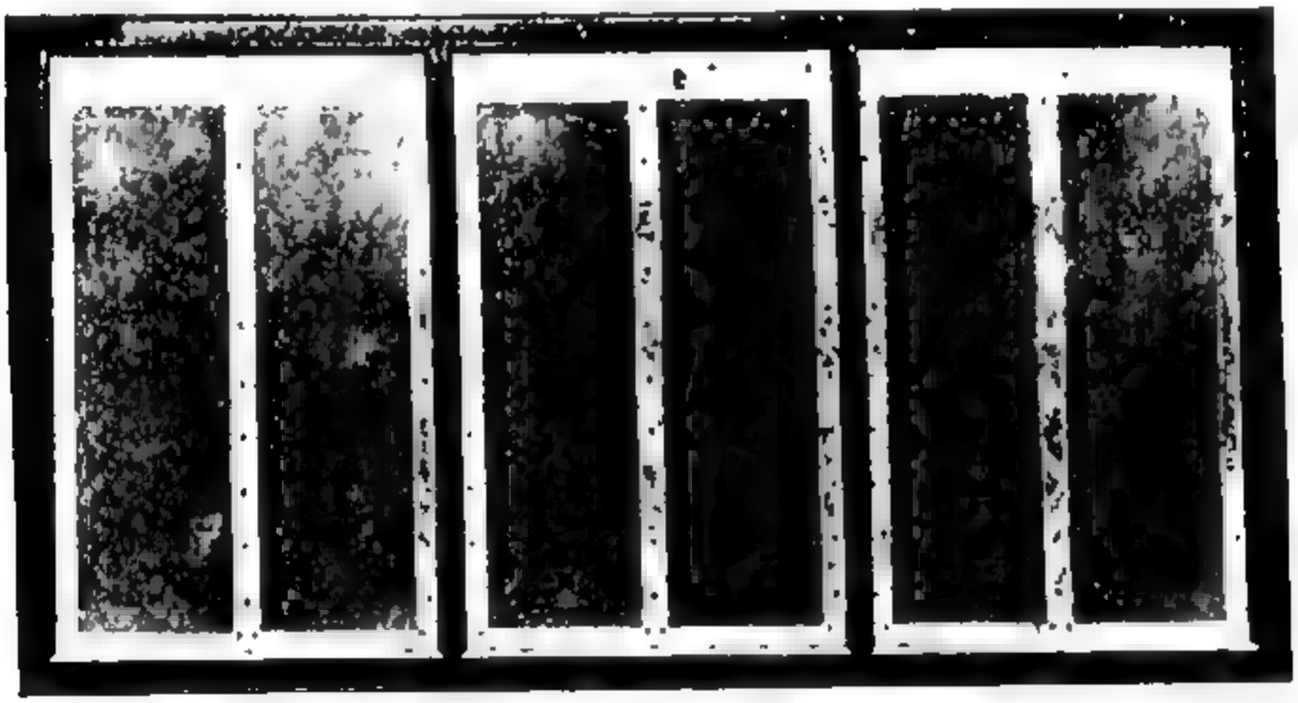


FIG. 109.—Adjustable Placard Catalogue (Section 306).

The slips are punched so as to secure absolute uniformity in size and in the position of the holes. The hole being made in an oval form allows the slips to be easily threaded on, or removed from the screw-fitting.

The special construction of the holders prevents the slips from sagging or drooping at their free ends, a fault observable in both the Staderini and Sacconi forms. It is usual to "guide" all forms of sheaf or slip catalogues, by boldly writing catch-words on both outer corners of each leaf, (*see* Figs. 105-6, 108), and indicating the contents by means of the xylonite label-holders on the backs.

306. Placard Catalogues.—The most ordinary form of placard catalogue is a manuscript or printed list of books on a large sheet or sheets, which is framed and hung on the wall where readers can see it. There are several varieties of these framed lists, which are used chiefly for lists of additions. A form giving the power of moving single entries has been devised in England which is better than anything else usually seen. This consists of a frame with a movable back, on which xylonite slips are fastened in such a way as to form long columns with flanged sides. Under the flanges can be slipped pieces of cardboard the width of the columns, which slide up and down in the length of the column as required. The titles of new books can be written on these cards and arranged in any order thought best. By leaving some blank cards between every letter of the alphabet or every class, additional entries can be added at any moment. If several frames are used, some hundreds of new books can be catalogued, and when full the entries can be transferred to the printed bulletin, or otherwise utilized, to free the frames for further additions. The illustration given above will show the nature of this adjustable accessions catalogue, which corresponds in principle with the adjustable Periodical List.

307. Panoramic Catalogues.—Several methods have been proposed or devised for displaying catalogue entries on an endless chain in a panoramic or continuous form, but none of them have proved of much practical value.

308. Reference List of Authorities:—

Brown (J. D.) Mechanical methods of displaying catalogues and indexes. L., v. 6, p. 45.

Green (H. E.) Card volumes *versus* card drawers. L. J., v. 17, p. 5.

Jast (L. S.) The Sheaf and card catalogues: a comparison. L. W., v. 5, p. 129.

Sacconi-Ricci, G. Observations on the various forms of catalogues used in modern libraries. L. J., v. 18, p. 423.

CHAPTER XIX.

INDEXING AND FILING.

309. Indexing.—The principal purposes for which indexing is required in public libraries are in connexion with the catalogue, the registration of borrowers, addresses, correspondence and the various books of record, such as minutes, inventories, etc. Catalogue-indexing has already been dealt with at Section 266 (27), and the indexing of borrowers is dealt with at Section 380. At this place only the indexing of correspondence, etc., will be considered.

310. There are many methods patent and other of indexing and filing correspondence. The use of self-indexing alphabetical systems is recommended, in preference to separate indexes on cards or slips, for letters. The plan of numbering letters in a progressive series as received, and then proceeding to make an alphabetical index referring to those arbitrary numbers, is not a method to be approved. This matter is further considered under the head of letter-filing in Section 314. Addresses of all firms having business relations with the library, and persons whose addresses are likely to be wanted, should be carefully preserved and indexed. For this purpose an ordinary card tray or slip book on the sheaf principle should be used. The chief point to be remembered in connexion with the indexing of addresses is that institutions should be indexed under their names and not under those of their officers. An officer is a changeable quantity, while the name of an institution rarely alters. It is well, however, to make a cross-reference from the name of the officer to that of the institution.

This rule applies to all government and public offices, and particularly to letter-filing described later on.

311. It is a most important matter, especially in large libraries, to be able to put hands immediately upon any article of stationery or other supplies. The old, haphazard plan of sticking supplies in cupboards with wooden doors, and trusting to luck or memory for finding them again, is too leisurely a method for the busy modern librarian. As a reasonable compromise we suggest that, as a preliminary reform, all storage cupboards or presses should have glazed doors. This simple

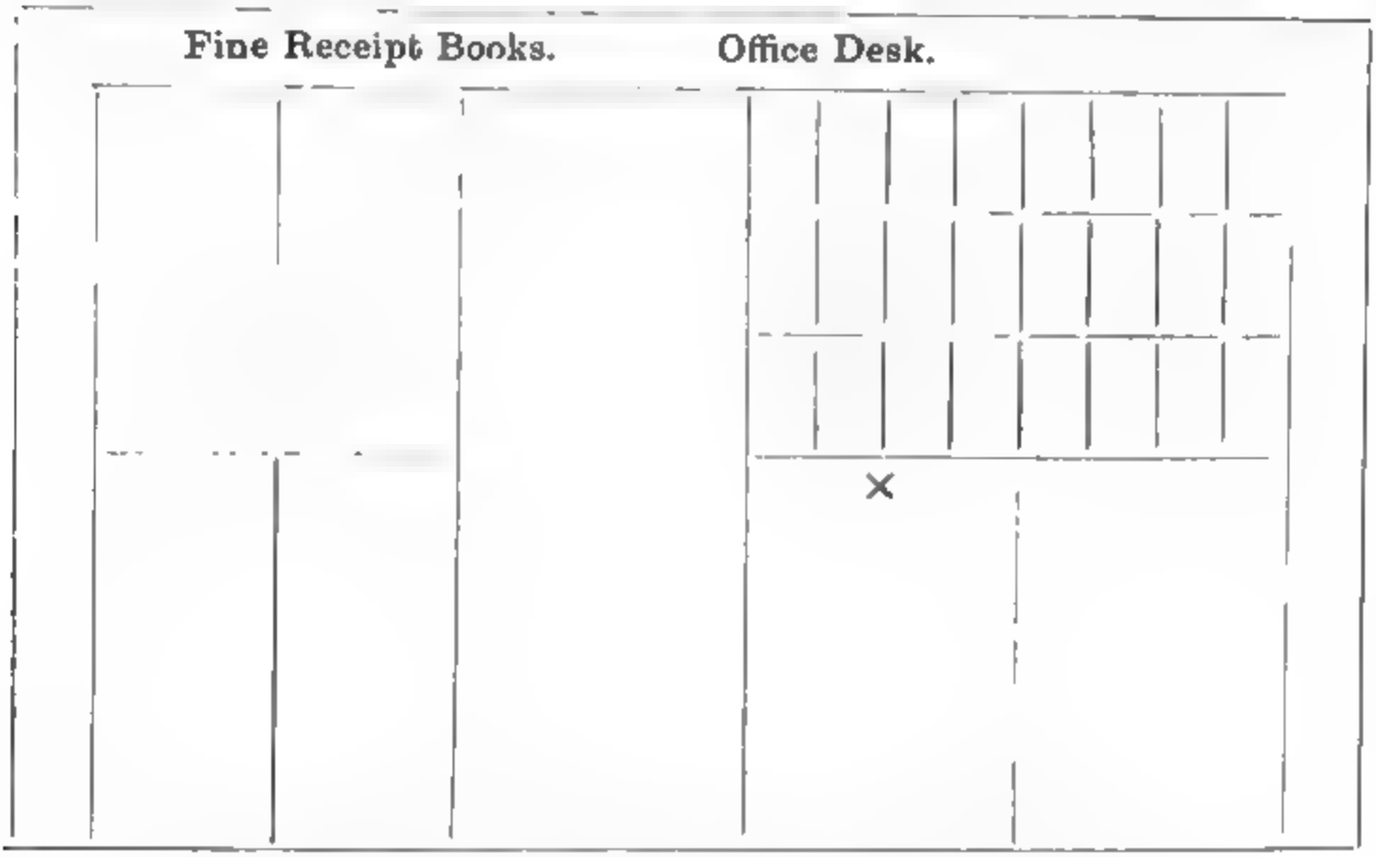


FIG. 110.—Supplies Location Card (Section 311).

precaution has the effect of inducing tidiness on the part of the staff, and the prospect of slovenly arrangement is reduced to a minimum. The next process is to decide upon a method of indexing which will offer the greatest facilities for rapidly finding any given article. In the *Library World* for July, 1899, Mr. Jast, of Croydon, describes a graphic method of achieving this end. He provides a series of cards of uniform size, one or more for each article indexed, according to the need for indexing them more than once in the alphabet. On these cards he draws a rough diagrammatic elevation of the cupboard or other place of storage, as illustrated (Fig. 110).

On this is indicated at the top left-hand corner the name or nature of the supply, and at the opposite corner its location. When a supply is stored away in this receptacle one of the blank cards representing it is headed as described, and the exact place where the articles are stored is indicated by a cross marked on the diagram, as shown above. Of course, every separate receptacle must have its own series of specially drawn cards. The index is made by arranging these cards in the alphabetical order of the names of the various articles. Any one wanting a new fine receipt book, and not knowing where to find it, would look up this index under the word "Fine" and there he would find the card which indicates not only the receptacle where these books were stored, but also the exact position.

312. A simpler and, perhaps, more straightforward plan would be to mark every cupboard or other receptacle with a letter or number. As these places would have glass doors, if they had any at all, there would be no necessity to mark further separate shelves or pigeon-holes. It is not always possible, or even desirable, to fix the location of supplies beyond the main receptacle. A reference to a cupboard is quite near enough for any one having eyes in his head. To these various receptacles an index on cards or slip books as before can readily be made. The card should bear the name of the article at one of its top corners, and on the opposite corner the number or letter of the place where it is to be found. If necessary the remainder of the card or slip can be used for setting out the dates and quantities of successive orders of the article. This will be found a very useful form of inventory.

313. The indexes of minute books or other manuscript records should be kept in the books themselves and not separately. A minute book in one place and its index in another constitutes a nuisance of the first magnitude. If a thumb index has not been provided, a few pages, say, twenty-six, may be reserved at the beginning or end of the book, in which an alphabetical sequence can be spaced out in pencil on the lines

indicated in Section 315. All indexes of whatever nature—addresses, minutes, supplies, letter books, etc.—should be kept closely up-to-date, and an assistant ought to be made responsible for this important work being regularly and systematically done.

314. Filing.—The same principles which regulate alphabetical indexing should govern the filing of correspondence and other documents. In sections following are described various mechanical filing appliances, and to this reference may be made for suggestions. As regards letters, the previous remarks above apply with full force. The only natural arrangement for letters is an alphabetical one, and no matter what kind of holders are used this arrangement should be invariably followed. A file of letters should be self-indexing, and should not entail the labour and cost of maintaining a separate index of any kind. If it is made the rule to place letters from institutions under the names of such institutions, and to insert, where necessary, in strict alphabetical order slips of paper in 8vo size to hold all cross-references from the names of officers, as may be required, there will be no need for any further name-indexing. If topical indexes are desired they can be compiled on similar 8vo slips, the subject word being written boldly at the top of the sheet, and the names of the writers on the topic entered in rough alphabetical order below. When a topic is remembered and the correspondent's name is forgotten, this enables a reference to be promptly made. These slips can take their place in alphabetical order among the letters. Such a file, stored in boxes similar to those noted in Section 321, with all necessary cross-references, need not be larger in extent than one year's correspondence.

At the end of every year the correspondence boxes can be emptied and tied up in suitable bundles, preserved in strict order, and endorsed with the year and alphabetical section of letters contained. Separate "folders," or stout manila wrappers, of uniform size, for keeping together all the correspondence of one individual, or on one subject, are very useful adjuncts to the method of alphabetical filing just described.

315. If the year's correspondence is not very large, probably half a dozen boxes will contain the whole lot. In such a case cardboard alphabetical divisions—A, B, C, D, etc.—can be made to fit the inside of the boxes, and distributed as required. Where there is a very large annual correspondence, a separate box can be appropriated for each letter of the alphabet, saving such small ones as I, J, O, Q, U, V, X, Y, which may be included in the adjoining letters. Cardboard alphabetical guides marked with minor divisions, such as Ba, Be, Bi, Bl, and so on, can be provided, as with the smaller files. These will serve as guides and help to preserve the alphabetical order. Each box should be clearly lettered outside by means of xylonite label-holders. The alphabetical numbers of the "Subject-Classification" can be used with advantage for very minute sub-divisions of the alphabet.

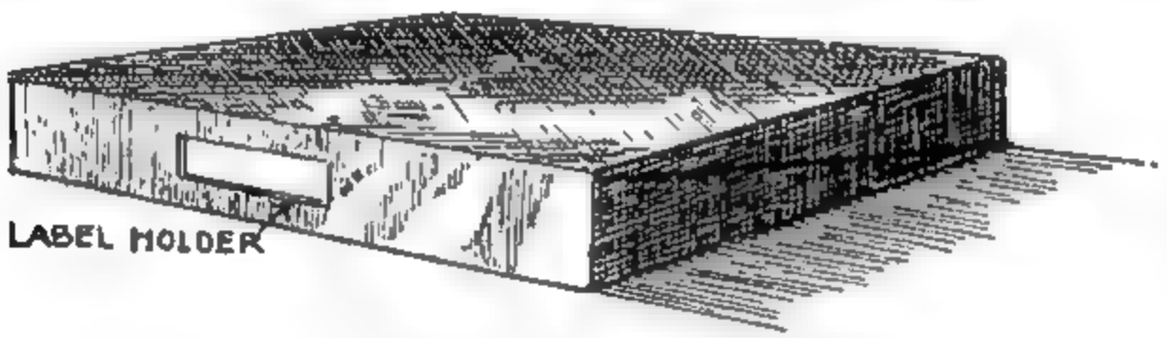


FIG. III..—Box for Filing Prints (Section 317).

316. The guard file described in Section 322 is intended for LETTERS which are kept in alphabetical order with a separate card index. It can also be used for filing such documents as contracts, estimates, specifications, reports, etc. A separate file can be reserved for each class of document, and, when lettered on the back, will be found a useful and convenient plan of keeping much-used documents handy. Documents which require to be folded and endorsed can be kept in one of the forms of clamps mentioned in Section 323.

317. MAPS and PRINTS, when unframed or unmounted, are best kept flat in large cloth-covered boxes with dust-proof lids, suitably labelled outside to indicate the contents. A xylonite label-holder tacked outside will be found a much more effective plan than permanently lettering the contents on the outside. This en-

ables any change to be made. These print- and map-boxes can be placed on racks like those mentioned in Section 148, or stored in a special cabinet. When the collection is small the different kinds of prints can be kept separated in the boxes by means of large sheets of cartridge paper placed between, and lettered to indicate the class of prints in each division. (Fig. 111.)

318. Pamphlets, when not bound in volumes, should be stitched in manila wrappers, and stored in boxes of various sizes, such as 8vo, 4to, etc., of the kind specified in Section 321. Each pamphlet should be lettered on the side of its wrapper, with its author, title, date, class letter and number and accession number. The collection might be commenced with an 8vo box for each class, and gradually extended from this nucleus as the stock increased, the contents of boxes being divided and subdivided, and placed in new boxes with changed lettering. As these would be arranged in class order, there would be no more difficulty in finding a single pamphlet than in finding a book. With miscellaneous collections of pamphlets bound in volumes, the best plan is to renumber them in a progressive series, and carry the volume number against the catalogue or other entry. It is not advisable to run more than one series of numbers, and if by chance a collection is acquired which is already numbered, these should be covered over with the continuation numbers of the library's own progressive series.

319. The filing of newspapers and periodicals can be done in a variety of ways. Newspapers should be kept in order on special racks, in piles, with a suitable board underneath to act as a runner and support, and a sheet of cardboard or glazed casing paper above to prevent the settlement of dust. Periodicals and magazines may either be kept in special cloth-covered boxes made to take a whole or half-year's numbers, as the case may be, or kept on boards in the same style as newspapers. In both cases alphabetical order of titles will be found the most suitable arrangement. The plan of placing the numbers of a periodical as done at the Mitchell Library, Glasgow, seems a very simple

and effective manner of dealing with a large number of different files. This is illustrated below (Fig. 112).

320. Cabinets for filing letters are patented in a very great number of forms, from elaborate structures with mechanical accessories to comparatively simple trays. The best-known systems—those of Shannon, Amberg, etc.—consist of boxes or trays containing alphabetical index sheets or cards, and various mechanical means of securing letters and documents in

Fig. 112.—Periodicals File (Section 319).

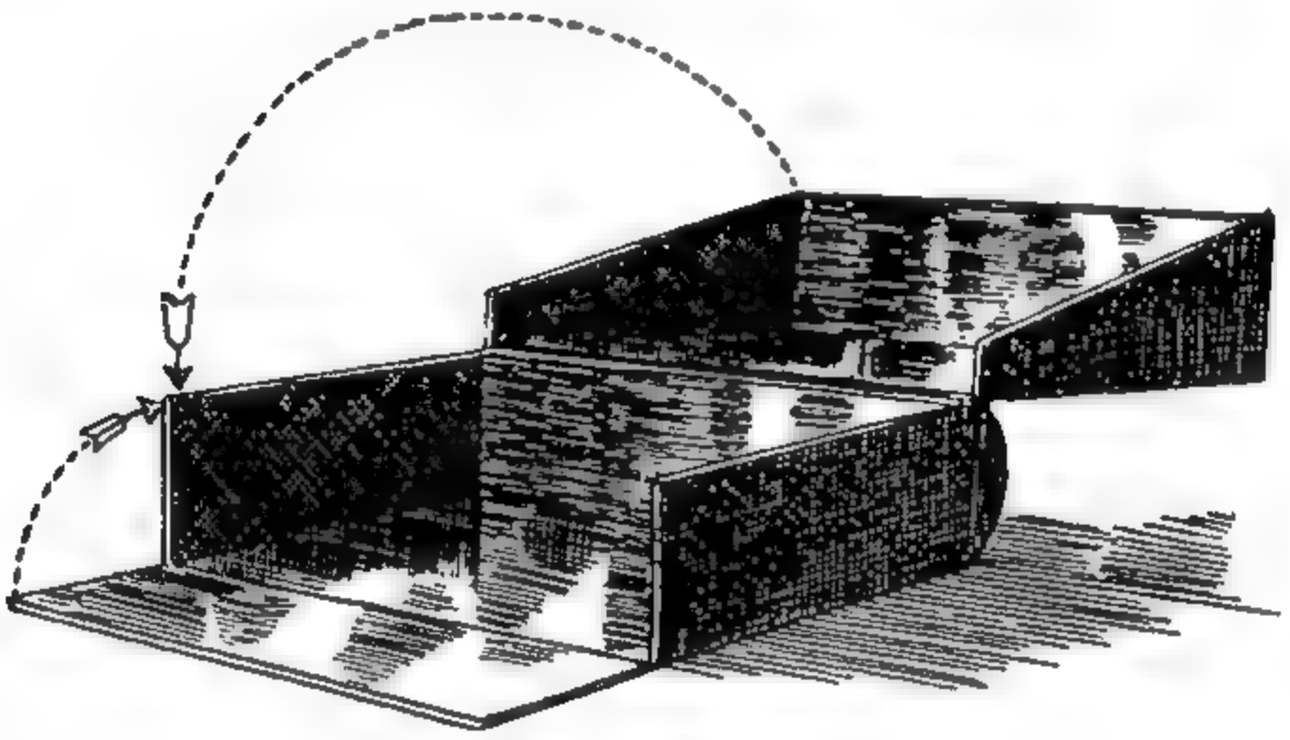


Fig. 113.—Box for Pamphlets, Letters, etc. (Section 321).

place, with means of expansion when necessary. Large files of this kind are intended to hold a long series of letters, and are more suited to the needs of business houses or public departments in which correspondence forms a principal part of the everyday work. There are numerous well-known methods which can be obtained in different sizes to suit varying requirements.

321. Boxes for filing letters and documents made in the

form illustrated (Fig. 113) will be found just as useful and convenient as more mechanical devices for all ordinary purposes. All they require is a series of division cards to preserve the alphabetical order, and they have the merit of being cheaper and handier than most other filing methods.

322. PORTFOLIOS and BINDERS for preserving documents can be had in all sizes and styles. Plain portfolios in the form of covers, without fastenings of any kind, save tapes to close their edges, are useful for holding and classifying documents for temporary purposes. It is a convenient plan to reserve such portfolios or suitable boxes for each particular piece of work in hand, and to slip all relative papers into them. They can be marked on the outside by means of paper labels, and will be found of much service for temporarily storing papers, etc. The same kind of portfolios, but with mechanical binding arrangements, can also be used for the same purpose.

323. CLAMPS and CLIPS for holding papers folded and endorsed or flat are sometimes useful in libraries. The simplest form of clamp is two pieces of cloth-covered board, one of which is hinged about two inches from one end. These clamps are held by means of stout rubber bands or tape.

324. Clips mounted on boards, suitable for hanging up, and those known as apron files are sometimes used for accounts and invoices.

325. REFERENCE LIST OF AUTHORITIES :—

Austin (W.) Pamphlets: what to do with them. L. J., v. 18, p. 143.
Biscoe (W. S.) Pamphlets. U. S. Educ. Rept., 1892-1893, v. 1, p. 826.
Burgoyne (F. J. P.) Display and filing of periodicals. L. A., v. 4, pp. 197, 203.
Jast (L. S.) Treatment of pamphlets. L. W., 1901, p. 60.
—— Treatment of parliamentary papers. L. W., 1901, p. 147.
How to keep unbound maps. (Symposium.) L. J., v. 16, p. 72.
Dana (J. C.) Rules for the care of photographs. *In his* "Library Primer," p. 171.
Bardwell (W. A.) Scrap-books. U. S. Educ. Rept., 1892-1893, v. 1, p. 999.

DIVISION VIII.

MAINTENANCE AND ROUTINE WORK.

CHAPTER XX.

STATIONERY AND RECORDS.

326. Forms and Blanks.—Most of the important forms and blanks have already been described and figured under the different departments to which they refer, and this section will, therefore, only deal with a few general forms. NOTEPAPER of various kinds should be provided, some in the ordinary business size, some post quarto, and some foolscap folio. On each of these sizes the usual heading should be printed, with the arms and name of the town, librarian's name, and any other information thought necessary. All ordinary correspondence can be carried on with the business size, but official and complimentary letters should be written on the larger sizes, especially if a typewriter is used. ENVELOPES to suit the various sizes should also be procured, and it is a good plan to stock some large-sized manila envelopes for sending off large documents, reports, etc. These can be had in a variety of sizes, and some of them have clasps instead of gummed flaps, which make them very useful for temporary filing purposes. Gummed postal WRAPPERS should also be stocked in a fairly large size, and LABELS for sending off parcels, with the name of the library boldly printed on them, will be found very useful.

327. Writing Materials.—INKS are manufactured in such

a variety of kinds and colours that choice is made difficult. A good black ink should be procured, and also a bright red colour. Copying ink is not really necessary, as ordinary blue-black ink, if not blotted but allowed to dry naturally, will make perfectly good press copies. Care should be taken not to completely dry the tissue-paper leaves of the letter book when making copies. Other colours of inks, such as green, violet, etc., can be obtained if wanted for special purposes. INK-WELLS should be got in the modern reservoir form, with a constant level dipping place. Ink kept in such receptacles never gets thick or dirty, and the pen is never overcharged or underfed. These ink-wells with rubber tops can be obtained for one shilling each, but for staff and committee use a better variety should be ordered. Ink-wells should always be associated with pen-*racks* rather than with pen-trays. A rack sorts the pens and pencils out automatically in a visible order, while a tray wastes a frightful amount of time annually, owing to the groping and examining and fruitless fumblings necessitated before the right pen or pencil is found among its fellows. One pen one place, is a good motto for any librarian. Of course the FOUNTAIN PEN removes a great deal of the waste of time and trouble inseparable from ink-pot filling, pen selecting, pen dipping, etc., and every librarian ought to have one as part of his ordinary equipment. There are various sorts in the market, but the higher priced ones are, as a rule, the only reliable ones, and the cost, 8s. 6d. to 10s. 6d., is an investment on which a return is soon made. STYLOGRAPHIC PENS are very useful, but because of their tendency to spoil good handwriting, they are not so satisfactory as fountain *pens*, although they are much cheaper. For staff use in the numbering of book labels, charging, etc., stylographic pens would be found very useful, and every library of reasonable size should stock a few.

PENCILS for public use should be the ordinary cedar ones at about 3s. 6d. a gross. For note-book copying purposes a Rowney "H" pencil, retailing at twopence, will be found of

great value, as it does not "set off" like an ordinary "H-B". A hard pencil lasts much longer than a soft one, it does not require pointing so often, and the fact just mentioned, that writing done by its means does not blur or "set off," is an advantage not to be despised. Red and blue crayon pencils should be kept for checking purposes. Ordinary pen-holders and hard and soft pen-points are occasionally stocked in public libraries, as well as pencils, to lend out to the readers. Where this is done a certain amount of loss will have to be faced, as pens and pencils both disappear in the most mysterious ways. It is, however, a very great convenience to provide pens, especially in reference libraries fitted with special reading-tables provided with sunk ink-wells.

Blotting paper, foolscap paper ruled faint, scribbling pads, and common white paper in sheets about 15 inches × 9 inches for mounting slips, should be provided among the writing materials of a library.

328. Library Stationery Cabinet.—It is needless to set out in more detail the various desk accessories and miscellaneous stationery required in a library, and an enumeration of the minimum contents of a stationery cabinet, which ought to be had for every library will suffice. A cabinet of this sort could be made up in various sizes and prices, like medicine chests, and would be found much more useful than the random method of buying articles at present in vogue.

STATIONERY CABINET.

Paper clips.
Stationery case. For holding a supply of envelopes, note-paper, etc. (large sizes).
Numbering machine (five figures).
Rubber dating stamps, with loose type and with band-changing apparatus.
Rubber printing outfit.
Nest of drawers, twelve in cabinet.
Cash-box.
Paper fasteners, corner clips, wire clips and brass clips.
Red tape, several spools (for documents only).
Pins.
Hand-rest for writing.
Tape measure or good two-foot rule.
Waste-paper basket.
Despatch basket (wicker), for holding documents.

STATIONERY CABINET—*continued.*

Letter scales, weighing to eight pounds.
Scissors.
Paste in bottles.
Rubber bands, assorted.
Rubber erasers.
Call bells, for public or office use.
Gummed labels, assorted sizes.
Sealing wax.
Twine of various thicknesses.
Ruled quadrille or squared paper (for planning).
Tracing paper or linen.
Case of mathematical instruments.
Paper knives.
Bone folders.
Leather book-carrying straps.
Reading and magnifying glasses.
Key rings and labels.
Writing pads or tablets.
Manuscript books of various sizes, 8vo, 4to, folio, for odd record purposes.
etc. etc.

329. **Records.**—An inventory should be kept of all supplies ordered, with dates and quantities, and a very good plan is to use the cards described at Section 330. These could be ruled in a series of columns to show dates, quantities and prices, and kept in a box which would serve the double purpose of inventory and supplies index. But there are other supplies besides stationery, etc., and these would have to be added. An inventory book should be kept in which to enter all movable property belonging to the library, such as furniture, pictures and other articles. It could be ruled as follows, and have so many pages set apart for each class of article.

Date.	Description.	Price.			Vendor.	Location.
		£	s.	d.		

FIG. 114.—Inventory Book (Section 329).

330. The following is a good and simple method of keeping an inventory of supplies, and providing for their automatic renewal. Thin slips on tough paper are ruled and printed as in the example below :—

PAPER

DESCRIPTION—Foolscap, ruled faint and margin.

LOCATION 4—2. Sample 359

Date.	Quantity.	Vendor.	Price.		
1906.					
April 6	2 Reams (A 6) .	Wicer 8/6 . .	—	17	—
Oct. 20	2 „ (A 59) .	„ 8/6 . .	—	17	—
1907.					
April 15	2 „ (A 165) .	Nobbs 8/- . .	—	16	—

FIG. 115.—FRONT OF INVENTORY SLIP.

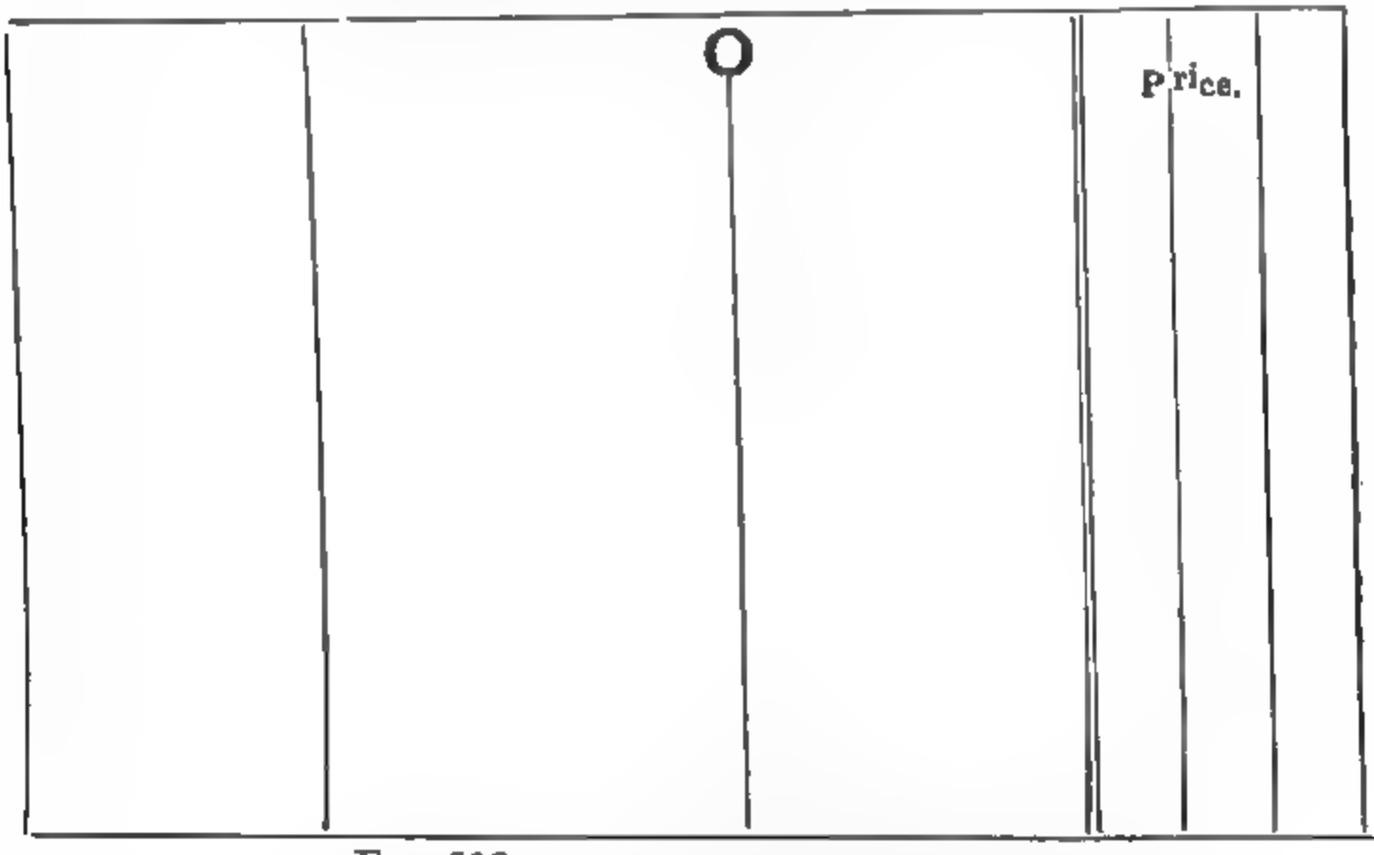


FIG. 116.—BACK OF INVENTORY SLIP.

This inventory does not prevent supplies from running out suddenly, and thereby producing undesirable misunderstandings. There are many ways of effecting this check, all more or less satisfactory, but none, perhaps, is quite so certain as an actual *material* check upon the running-out of supplies. In addition

to the inventory it is necessary to establish an "emergency-supply" cupboard, safely locked up, and in it to place a small stock of everything which is liable to run out. Thus, if two reams of foolscap arrive, a five-quire packet must be taken from it, separately parcelled up, and deposited in the emergency-supply receptacle. Attached to this emergency bundle should be a luggage label, or other conspicuous tag, bearing the words "Foolscap, ruled faint, order No. 69, Stock exhausted.:....." The blank space is for the date when the emergency supply is transferred to the ordinary stock cupboard. In course of time the accessible stock is used up, and the person who removes the last sheet, or the one who next goes, discovers the shortage, and is forced to ask the key-keeper of the emergency cupboard for the reserved stock. This is produced, the label is dated and put on the librarian's desk, and all responsibility for ordering a fresh supply is instantly and automatically put upon the right shoulders.

331. The library KEYS should all be assembled on a special key-board. This should consist of a large board fitted with the necessary number of hooks, one for each key or group of keys, and a proper descriptive label and number should be pasted under each hook. The keys should be numbered and labelled to correspond, with ivory labels attached by rings to every key. In addition an alphabetical list should be fixed to the door of the key-board, so as to facilitate finding. When keys are removed from the building, they should be insured with one of the key insurance or registry offices.

There are several minor matters of routine or arrangement not dealt with in other places. Dusting is usually underdone in British libraries. For one thing there is never a sufficient supply of cloth dusters in any library. Often a dirty one, stowed away in a drawer, is all the provision for a large library. Clean dusters should be attached by means of rings or clips to every bookcase and cupboard throughout a library, and the staff should be taught to use them on every possible occasion. There would be much less dust among book-shelves if a liberal supply

of dusters were allowed and constantly used. When books are being dusted systematically a large tray or box of wet sawdust should be provided. Into this the books should be dusted by means of a brush.

It is also a good plan, whenever possible, to take very dusty books out to the open air, and smartly beat them together, two at a time. This drives the dust out more effectually than anything else. The mechanical dusting machines which work by means of suction are sometimes useful in cases where large accumulations of dust require to be removed, and not simply redistributed. Wood block and linoleum covered floors when treated with wax polish do not require to be scrubbed, and the surface remains smooth, and cleaning is reduced to a minimum. There are various floor preparations which are said to be effectual in keeping down dust.

332. Reference List of Authorities:—

Inks for Library Use. Symposium by American librarians. L. J., 1894, pp. 84, 124.

Swan (R. T.) Paper and ink. L. J., 1895, p. 163.

CHAPTER XXI.

BOOKBINDING AND REPAIRING.

333. General.—Public library binding is an art by itself, and is quite distinct from ordinary commercial bookbinding on the one hand, and artistic binding on the other. A binding which is strong enough to withstand the handling of its owner and his friends, and beautiful enough to please the taste of the fastidious amateur, is practically useless in a position where it may have to endure the handling of hundreds, or even thousands, of different persons, all of whom are not equally educated in the proper use of books. A public library book requires to be bound neatly and strongly, with particular regard to the integrity of the stitching rather than to its mere covering, although this has to be considered in the case of much-used reference books.

334. For public library work it is absolutely necessary to employ only good binders who are experienced in this particular class of bookbinding. In very many cases, especially in small towns, the work turned out by local binders is about as bad as it can well be, and just as likely to lead to the rapid destruction of books as to their preservation. Cheapness does not in this matter necessarily mean economy, nor is good workmanship an invariable accompaniment of low prices. It may be said generally that library binding is one of the items of maintenance which no library can *afford* to have done cheaply and badly. It is much better, in the long run, for a library in a small provincial town to send its work to a recognized bookbinder in a large town, and even to pay carriage both ways, than to depend upon the local bookseller or stationer, who only knows

about the casing of magazines. A good binder will bind a book in a manner which will enable the boards to outlive the leaves, while a poor workman will require to have his work done over again very soon, if, meanwhile, his rough and unscientific methods have not tended to shorten the existence of the book.

335. The question of binding books from the sheets, or re-binding cloth- and paper-board books in leather, before putting them in circulation, has been much debated, though it is really not a very formidable or difficult matter after all. As no one can foretell with any certainty whether or not any given book is going to be popular and much used, it is manifestly a mistake to have any book re-bound, or specially bound from the sheets in leather, until this very important point has been very clearly ascertained. Time alone can determine whether a book is going to be popular, and for this reason there seems little economy or gain in specially binding new books at the outset. Books in publishers' cloth bindings, when printed on paper of fair quality, will often circulate forty, fifty and even seventy times before attaining a condition which requires re-binding, and when strongly and properly re-bound in leather or other boards will outlast the book. Some claims have been advanced with regard to the durability of various stiles of binding, but it is impossible to ignore the fact that it is the paper of the book and not the covers of the binding which forms the weak point. Dirt is a much more potent factor than rough usage in shortening the life of a book, and it really matters very little what kind of special materials or stitching are employed, no book's existence can be prolonged beyond a certain term of years, when dirt and inferior paper are such important elements in the matter. There are other important factors in the question of binding from sheets, and one is the difficulty of obtaining the necessary copies from publishers. Another is the fact that some cheap novels cannot be had in quires at all, and, consequently, any advantage which may result from unused sheets giving a better and firmer hold for stitching is in this case completely lost. The durability of new books re-bound in special materials has been somewhat

exaggerated, and librarians and committees should first adopt the ordinary method of allowing use to determine the books which require re-binding. But experiments should also be tried with special re-binding and other plans in order to ascertain what is best for general use.

336. It would be a valuable concession if publishers would issue some copies of every novel by well-known authors, printed on specially tough paper, and bound according to the specification given in Section 344. This would meet every need which exists for specially bound copies of popular books, and give the much more valuable advantage of editions printed on paper which is not mere rubbish.

337. **Home Binding.**—The question of establishing a book-binding plant, for the purpose of conducting binding on the library premises, is one which only affects the large libraries of the country. Comparatively few libraries in Britain have enough of new binding or repairing work in a year to justify the expense of buying appliances and materials, or paying for the necessary expert staff which would be required. On the other hand, very large towns with a number of branch libraries may find it both economical and advantageous to establish binderies, if not for extensive operations in the binding of books, at least for their repair and re-casing. At Portsmouth, Hull, Bristol, Brighton and elsewhere home binderies more or less extensive have been established, and the experience gained in these places seems to vary considerably.

In the absence of further and more complete information home binding is not advocated save in the very largest libraries. A joint-stock or co-operative bindery could be worked by the London Metropolitan Borough Libraries with considerable prospects of success and economy, but in isolated provincial towns the plan is not so feasible.

338. Repairing departments stand upon quite another footing, and here there is safe ground for experiment with every prospect of success. At Glasgow, Croydon, and other places, small repairing plants have been in operation for some time

with good results. At both Glasgow and Croydon, women binders are employed, who repair and re-case books, stitch pamphlets in covers, and even bind cheap books which are not likely to be greatly used. Lettering and numbering can also be done, a useful branch of the bookbinder's art, carried on at a considerable number of libraries. A repairing plant such as is used at Croydon costs about £10, while the wages of a binder may range from 25s. to 30s. weekly. Materials also run into a certain sum per annum, according to the nature and amount of work done.

339. Finishing, which includes lettering and numbering, can be done by members of the library staff, although instruction is sometimes difficult to obtain owing to trade jealousy and the absurd regulation of most polytechnic schools, which, though supported by public funds, deny instruction to any save those actually engaged in particular trades. Perhaps the day will come when properly equipped library schools will be established at London, Edinburgh, Dublin and Cardiff for the instruction of librarians, not only in advanced librarianship, but in bookbinding, typography and all allied practical arts. A complete finishing plant, including sets of numbers and alphabets, can be purchased for about £3 3s., and even small libraries can afford this sum, if only to obtain the satisfaction of accomplishing on the premises the work of class lettering and numbering, which requires both care and neatness. At any rate, inquiry should be made by librarians as to the possibilities of establishing a finishing department, especially in cases where a systematic classification is used.[1]

340. Materials.—For public library purposes book-covering materials should be of the most durable sorts, and it is not wise to employ many different varieties either of cloths or leathers. Ordinary binders' cloth is nearly as satisfactory as anything else for preserving its colour, lettering and defying the pernicious effects of gas-laden atmospheres and extremes of temperature.

[1] *See* "Specification for the fittings of a small bindery," by F. J. Williamson, in *Leather for Libraries*, 1905.

It will not stand much handling, however, and is very liable to wear out at the corners and joints. Nevertheless, for little-used collections of pamphlets, sets of local publications, and other matter which merely wants binding for appearance's sake and storage purposes, ordinary binders' cloth is strongly recommended. Smooth varieties are preferable to rough or patterned kinds, as being less liable to harbour dust. Apart from ordinary binders' cloth, the best known varieties are linen cloths, buckrams and Pegamoid and Rixine cloths. Buckrams and linen cloths are expensive in comparison with their durability, but may be recommended for special purposes. Pegamoid and Rixine cloths are treated in a special way with some preparation of celluloid to render them impervious to dirt and moisture. For novels and other short-lived books these cloths are worth a trial, as they cannot be regarded as expensive. At any rate, experience has proved that these materials will outlast any novel which may be re-bound in them, and, after all, that is as much as can be expected of any binding.

341. The principal leathers used for public library bindings are Pig-skin, Persian and Levant moroccos, and roan. Calf, Russia and other fancy leathers should not be used, as they turn brittle under the influence of heated and dry air, and crumble to pieces. Apart from this, they are costly and otherwise unsuitable for public library purposes. The leathers recommended should be used according to the books which they have to cover, and the following list will give an idea of the best classes for which to use each kind:—

Levant morocco, or real morocco, made from goat-skin. This material should only be used for very valuable books which require a handsome and dignified binding. It is very durable, but too expensive for ordinary work.

Persian morocco, made from sheep-skin, is not so dear or so good as Levant morocco, but is a very durable and satisfactory leather if a good quality is procured. It should be used for popular books in the non-fictional classes of the lending department. Heavy books can be bound in

this leather, but pig-skin is better. The more it is used the better it wears and keeps its condition.

Roan is a kind of inferior sheep-skin, with a different grain and surface than Persian morocco, and is a useful and cheap leather for certain classes of books, such as the less popular works of travel, science, theology, fiction, etc. Books up to the crown octavo size can be half-bound in this material at prices ranging from 10d. to 1s. a volume. Heavy books are not recommended for binding in this leather.

Pig-skin is the strongest leather of all, and also the most durable; but librarians should make certain that real pig-skin is supplied, and not some wretched imitation. The price of pig-skin is rather more than good Persian morocco. It is the best leather to use for heavy books, and all reference works, such as dictionaries, atlases, directories, and other volumes which are being constantly handled.

All leathers specified for bookbinding should be of the acid-free description recommended by the Society of Arts Committee (1898-1900) and the Sound Leather Committee of the Library Association. Sumach-tanned leathers are now to be had with a special guarantee from the makers.

Other binding materials, such as vellum, parchment, canvas and patent leathers of various kinds, are seldom required in libraries, and need not be considered further. Preparations for spreading on books to protect them may also be passed over, and also the continental and American habit of covering all books in manila or other paper covers of uniform colour. Most of the so-called leather "preservatives" are hurtful rather than helpful, but it may be observed that some leather bindings which get dry and worn will improve if treated with ordinary vaseline. It should be rubbed well and plentifully into the texture of the leather with the fingers, and when it has soaked in, should be wiped with a soft cloth. Vaseline is as good as any patent or other preservative for reviving decaying and shabby leathers of all kinds, although it dries quickly, and fur-

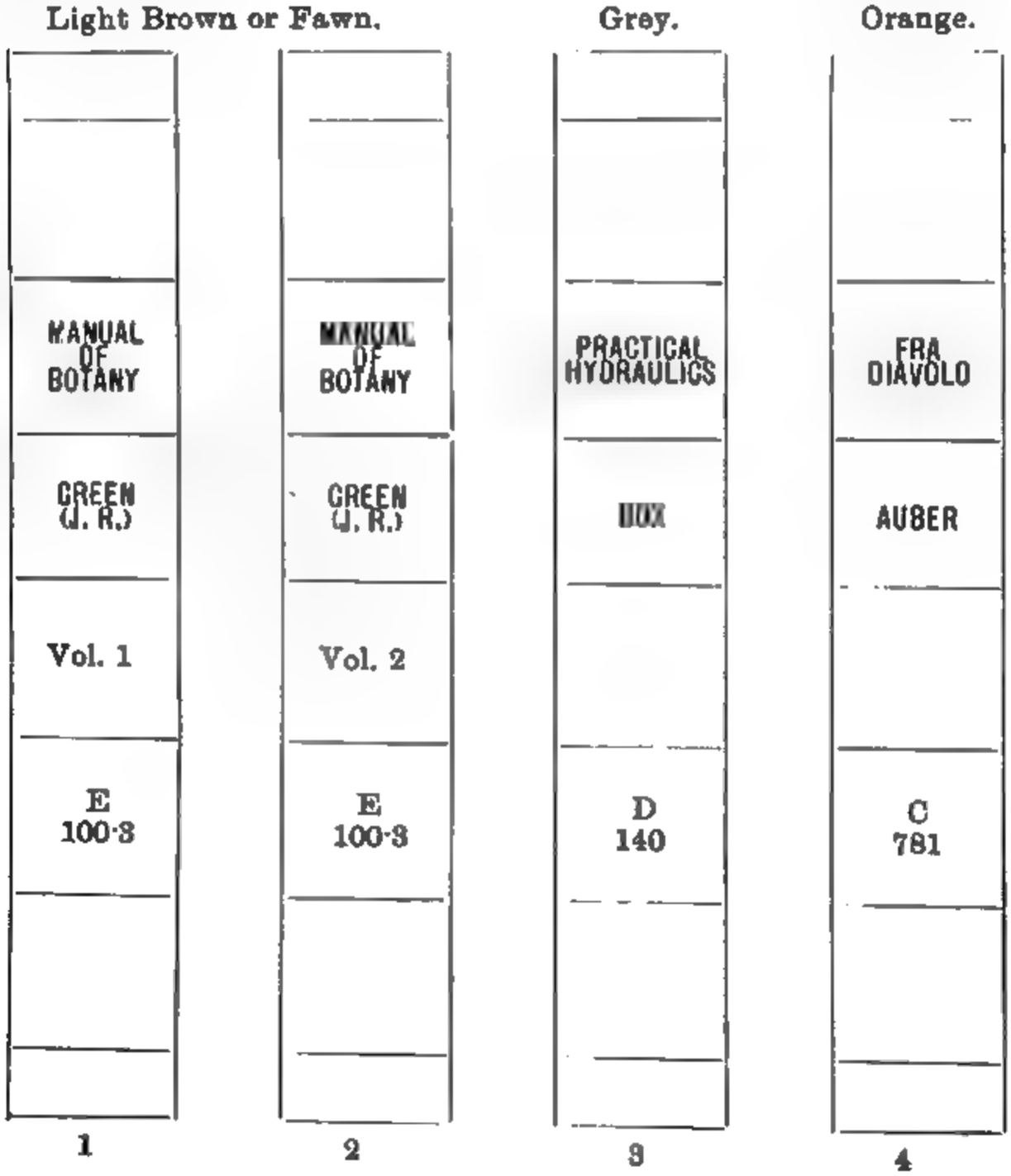
niture polish has also been recommended. As regards covers the time has not yet come when the individuality of a book, as issued by its publisher, or given by its appropriate library binding, requires to be hidden under a paper mask.

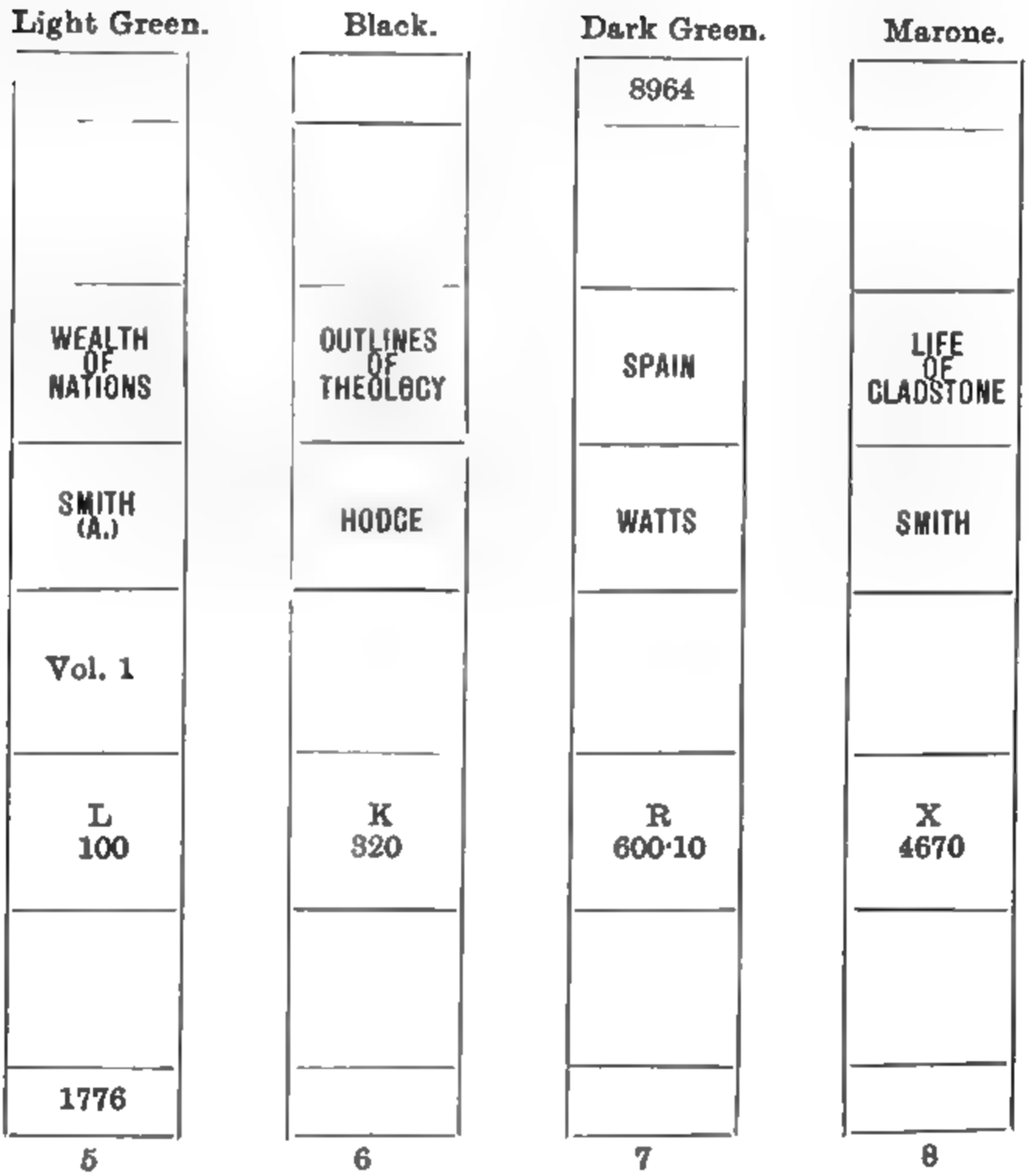
342. Class Colours.—In systematically classified libraries there is a certain amount of advantage to be gained by re-binding each class of books, as required, in some appropriate colour. When open access to the shelves is also granted, there is a very considerable aid to the maintenance of order given by the use of distinctive class colours.

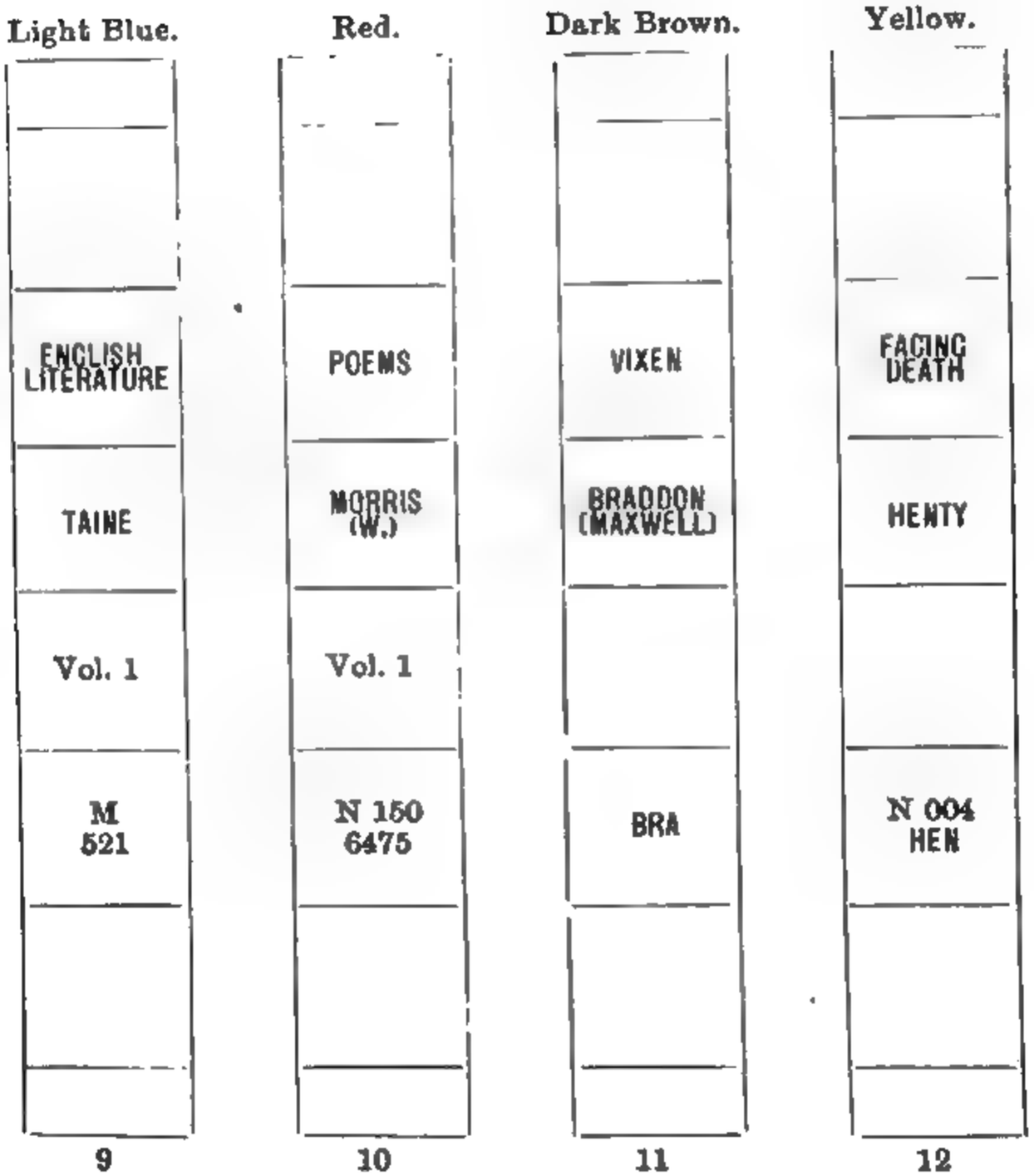
Thus, Science may be light brown or fawn colour; Fine Arts, orange; Social Science, light green; Theology, etc., black; History and Travel, dark green; Biography, marone; Philology, light blue; Poetry, red; Fiction, dark brown; and Juvenile, yellow; and so on to any degree.

343. Lettering and Numbering.—When lettering and numbering have to be done apart from the re-binding, they can be executed by the staff after a little practice, as pointed out in Section 339. The object of lettering is to facilitate the finding of books, and for this reason it should be clear and bold. It is also possible by means of a little variation to obtain a certain amount of class-guiding in the system of lettering, and it should be made an invariable principle in every public library to adopt a certain order of particulars on the backs of books, and stick to the order. Too often this important matter is left to the fitful fancy of the binder's finisher, with the result that very frequently the author's name appears in all the panels in rotation. The following series of suggestions for dealing with each class is offered as a basis on which any librarian can build a system of his own. The letterings are arranged on the principle of guiding readers and assistants as naturally and easily as possible to particular books, and providing for titles, authors, volume numbers, class numbers, and dates of publication when necessary. Class letters and numbers should occupy one definite place on each book, which will not be subject to variations in height when appearing on books of different sizes. Another

reason for this is that most books in bindings, as issued by publishers, have their titles close up to the top, and so it is rendered impossible in many cases to stamp new figures there, while large paper labels often cover part of the title. The following standard markings for the backs of books are arranged so that titles occupy the leading panel in all classes and thereby correspond with the great majority of the books as issued by publishers.




Light Green.
WEALTH OF NATIONS
SMITH (A.)
Vol. 1
L 100
1776
5
Black.
OUTLINES OF THEOLOGY
HODGE
K 320
6
Dark Green.
8964
SPAIN
WATTS
R 600·10
7
Marone.
LIFE OF GLADSTONE
SMITH
X 4670
8


Light Blue.
ENGLISH LITERATURE
TAINE
Vol. 1
M 521
9
Red.
POEMS
MORRIS (W.)
Vol. 1
N 150 6475
10
Dark Brown.
VIXEN
BRADDON (MAXWELL)
BRA
11
Yellow.
FACING DEATH
HENTY
N 004 HEN
12

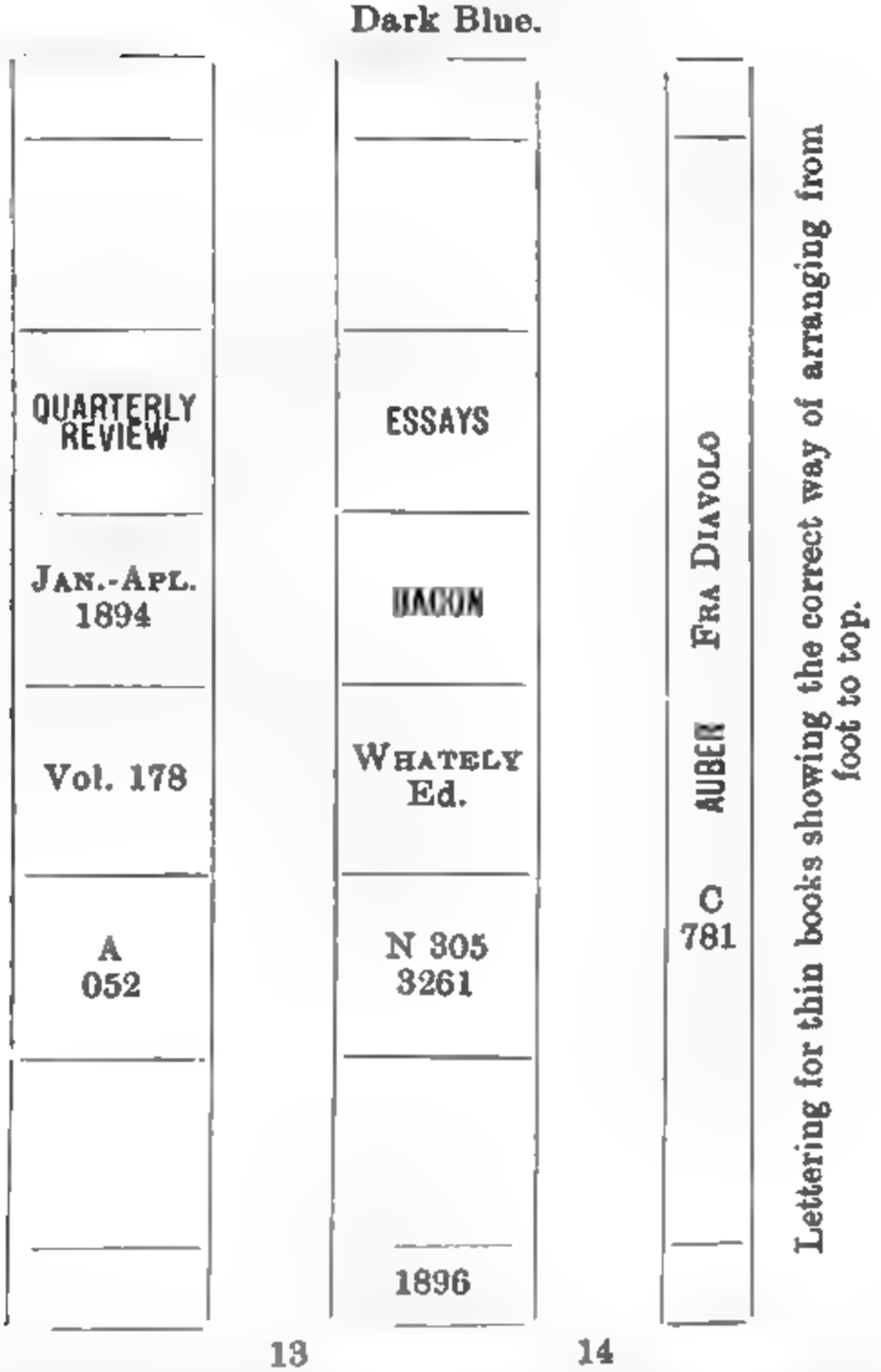


FIG. 117.—Specimens of Class Lettering and Numbering (Section 343).

The chief points to emphasize in these suggested letterings are that the class letter and number should always occupy the same relative position irrespective of the size of the volume, namely, about two inches from the foot, and that alphabetical classes like Fiction, Poetry and Essays should be boldly lettered with the first three letters of the author's surname, or numbers from an author-table, while *Individual* Biography only should be similarly marked with the surname letters of the *subject* of the biography, but not the author, save in the case of auto-biographies, letters, etc. If it should be thought necessary to add the accession numbers, they can be placed out of the way

in the top half-panel, as shown in No. 7, while shelf colours for open access can be added at the points suggested in Section 247.

344. Specification.—A bookbinding specification should include every point which has any bearing on the cost, finish and workmanship of the books. The specification of the Society of Arts and that drafted by Mr. Douglas Cockerell are very good, and many of their points could be included in a specification for library binding. As requirements differ in every library, it is impossible to attempt the drafting of a model specification which will meet every case, but the details set out in the following draft may prove useful and suggestive:—

DRAFT BOOKBINDING SPECIFICATION.

To the Public Libraries Committee
of..... Date ..

Gentlemen,

.... undertake to bind books for the .... Public Libraries Committee in the manner specified below, at the prices stated in the annexed schedule, for one year from .... to .. ..

All books to be well beaten or rolled, and care taken to avoid set-off of ink in new books.

To be sewn one-sheet-on, on strong tapes; the first and last sheets to be enclosed at back in linen strips. All sections broken at the back to be enclosed in linen strips, and neatly overcast, not less than four stitches to the inch, before being sewn to the tapes. Four tapes to be allowed for crown 8vos; other sizes in proportion. The tapes to be firmly secured between the back and front boards, which must be carefully split to receive them.

In leather-bound books, the backs to be made close and flexible, without bands, save in cases to be separately notified, but with blind fillets in imitation of bands. Leathers as specified in schedule, with smooth cloth sides to match colour of leathers.

In cloth- or pegamoid-bound books, the backs to be made open, with suitable linings. Edges to be very carefully cut, sprinkled and burnished, but only when the margins are not too small; otherwise to be left with proof and top edge only smoothed.

End-papers to be of stout, coloured, marbled or printed paper, with at least one white leaf before and after the printed matter. (Or as an alternative—the special library end-papers to be used in all books re-bound, etc.)

Linen or other strong cloth joints in all books.

Lettered in gold with author's name, title, class numbers, initials, etc.,

as per separate diagram showing arrangement of lettering for each class. The colours of leathers and cloths for each class to be as specified in the diagram. The order of lettering and colours to be maintained unless altered by the instructions, and class letters and numbers to be placed at a uniform height of two inches from the foot of each book, irrespective of size.

Include all wrappers, cancelled matter, and advertisement pages of certain magazines at the end of volumes, in their published order.

All materials used to be of the best quality, and the work done carefully and promptly. Deficiencies and irregularities in books, if any, to be reported to the librarian.

Each lot of binding to be finished and returned within .... weeks from the date of order.

Should there be any extras chargeable beyond those provided for in this specification, they must be reported to the librarian before the work is proceeded with.

Samples of the manner in which ... propose to bind books in accordance with this specification are sent herewith.

SCHEDULE OF PRICES.

Sizes.	Half Levant Morocco.	Half Persian Morocco.	Half Pig-skin.	Half Roan.	Best Linen.	Best Ordinary Cloth.
Fcap. 8vo (6½″ × 4″) . .						
Crown 8vo (7″ × 4½″) .						
Post 8vo (8″ × 5″) . .						
Demy 8vo (9″ × 6″) . .						
Medium 8vo (9½″ × 6″) .						
Royal 8vo (10″ × 6½″) .						
Imperial 8vo (11″ × 7½″)						
Quarto (11″ × 8½″) . .						
Folio (13″ × 8″) . . .						

Prices of other sizes to be in proportion.

Extras:—

Per inch for folios over thirteen inches.

For lettering large initials in classes N and X . . . per hundred.

For mending torn or broken leaves.

For guarding plates in linen or jaconet, per dozen.

For mounting and dissecting maps, etc., on fine linen, per sq. foot. . . . For extra thickness, if books more than half the width of boards. . . .

Signature of firm.

....

Some libraries use vellum instead of leather corners, while others have the corners of the leaves neatly rounded like a pack of modern playing cards, and some have the boards rounded to correspond. It is a good plan to have the corners of the leaves slightly rounded, but there is no great benefit arising from any of the other items. Other points will doubtless crop up in the practice of every library, and these must be provided for as thought best. Metal corner-pieces let in between the split boards are not recommended.

345. Records and Checks.—When a lot of books for binding is sent out it must be accompanied by a set of instructions to the binder, and a copy of this must be retained at the library as a record and to check the books when returned. The most usual plan is to send out a binding sheet, ruled as follows, on which are entered the particulars of the books re-

Date when sent.	Lettering.	Class and No.	Instruction.	Date Returned.

FIG. 118.—Binding Sheet (Section 345).

quiring binding. These particulars are also entered in a binding book, ruled exactly the same as the sheets, and in the last column of this the books are marked off as returned. It is usual to make the binder's messenger check over and sign for every lot of books at the end of the page. Another method,

which possesses the advantage of enabling the binder to distribute the work in his workshop, and makes every book carry its own instruction, is as follows: Procure a large book of perforated slips, with a counterpart page, unperforated, behind every page of slips, in the style of a manifold order book. Have these pages ruled as below, and progressively numbered :—

Progressive No.	Date of Despatch.	Lettering.	Class.	Material.	Date Returned.
1					
2					
3					
4					

FIG. 119.—Binding Order Book (Section 345).

Or separate order slips, as under (Fig. 120), can be used, and their purport briefly entered in a binding book ruled to show title, class and date returned, with a column for a consecutive number, which of course would be written on the corresponding slip.

When an order for binding is being made up each book is entered on a numbered slip, pencarbon or other copying paper

being placed between the slips and the counterpart below. Dates can be stamped to save time. The slips are then detached and placed in the books to which they refer. An ordinary order form is then made out in some such terms as :—

Mr. .. . ... will please bind as per contract and separate instructions the ... books sent herewith, comprising numbers .. . to ... . .

No.	Date sent
LETTERING	
TITLE	
AUTHOR	
VOL. No.	
CLASS No.	
Material	
Other instructions	

FIG. 120.—Binding Order Slip (Section 345).

The binder's messenger can sign the book on the last counterfoil, in a form like this :—

Received on .... from the .... Public Library ..... volumes for binding.

Or a rubber stamp with these words and blanks can be used. The object of the progressive number is to afford a ready means of identifying instructions and ascertaining in an easy manner the number of books bound in any one year. These

numbers may also be written in ink at the end of the letter-press of each book, as a means of ascertaining how often any book has been re-bound. The price, if carried into the column reserved for the progressive number in the counterpart, will also be a useful record to keep. By simply referring to the progressive numbers it is possible to ascertain the price paid for successive re-bindings, and to keep a check on the whole of the work.

346. Repairs should not be entered in this book. It is better to use an ordinary order sheet and copy it in the press order book. It can be headed :—

Mr. will please re-case the following books :—

or

Mr. will please repair the following books, as per instructions added to each :—

347. Miscellaneous.—Tape or ribbon BOOK-MARKS are sometimes placed in public library books, but a much more obvious and useful plan is to print a special book-mark with a folding-over tab, which can be placed in *all* books which are issued, and not confined simply to those which are re-bound. A good form of marker can have one or two pointed rules for the due care and preservation of books printed on a conspicuous part.

Some enterprising firms give away book-marks of various kinds, and many publishers insert advertising cards which serve as markers

348. Special END-PAPERS have been introduced in a few libraries to be placed in re-bound books. They serve the purpose of an ownership mark more effectually than a book-plate, but, of course, they can only be used in the books which happen to require re-binding. The Croydon end-paper is quite an elaborate design, resembling a wall-paper in appearance, and giving compartments showing the arms, monogram and a view of the town hall. End-papers of this kind are a luxury which few public libraries can afford.

349. An effective way of placing an indelible mark of ownership upon a public library book is to impress a blind stamp upon the outside front board. This can be done by means of a screw-press and a special die, and need not cost more than from £5 to £8. Any member of the staff can impress such a stamp, and it is better than confining this mark of ownership simply to books which have been re-bound. A circular stamp is best, as it will always appear straight.

REFERENCE LIST OF AUTHORITIES :—

350. General—

Bliss (H. E.) Better bookbinding for libraries. P. L., v. 11, p. 294; L. J., v. 30, p. 849.
Caldwell (M. R.) Preparing for the binder. P. L., v. 11, p. 302.
Chivers (C.) Practical bookbinding. L. A., 1901, p. 171.
Cockerell (D.) Bookbinding and the care of books. 1901.
Dana (J. C.) Notes on bookbinding. 1906.
Davenport (C.) Leather as used in bookbinding. L., v. 10, p. 15.
—— Notes on bookbinding. L., v. 5, p. 217.
Fletcher (W. I.) Durability of cloth bindings. L. J., v. 18, p. 40.
Graesel (A.) Library binding. *In his* "Bibliothekslehre," 1902.
Jast (L. S.) Binders' lettering. L. W., v. 3, p. 232.
Johnston (D. V. R.) Library binding. U. S. Educ. Rept., 1892-1893, v. 1, p. 907.
Leather for libraries. 1905.
Powell (W.) Library bookbinding. L. W., v. 5, p. 171.
Stephen (G. A.) Notes on materials for library bookbinding. L. A., v. 5, pp. 143, 162.
Stevenson (R.) Binding of serials. L. W., v. 3, p. 266.
Woodard (G. E.) Notes on bookbinding. L. J., v. 23, p. 231.

351. Home Binding—

Coutts (H. T.) The home bindery or repairing department. L. W., v. 9, p. 233.
Mathews (E. R. N.) Library binderies. L. A. R., v. 8, p. 73.
Straight (M. W.) Repairing of books. P. L., v. 5, p. 88.

352. Book Marks—

Book marks. P. L., v. 6, p. 340.

DIVISION IX.

PUBLIC SERVICE.

CHAPTER XXII.

RULES AND REGULATIONS.

353. General.—Much of the success of a municipal library will depend on the rules and regulations adopted for its conduct and management. A considerable number of the rules which were drafted in the early days of the public library movement, while committees were still in ignorance of the demeanour of the rank and file of readers, require modification in these later days, when it has been definitely ascertained that nothing serious is to be apprehended from the conduct of 99 per cent. of the library frequenters. The original library committees regarded the general public through the spectacles of a police magistrate, and drew up their regulations on a quite unnecessary scale of severity. The whole tone of these codes was fraught with suspicion and distrust, and throughout their long course they were nothing but prohibitions against doing all sorts of things, from spitting on the floor to criticizing the librarian.

354. The traditional respect for the good old times, which is at once the curse and the prime virtue of the British race, has led to the perpetuation of a considerable number of these severe rules; and in many libraries are still to be found ordinances which in no way reflect the modern library spirit, or indicate that the slightest attempt has been made to revise the regulations in consonance with the changed conditions of the present. Where such rules are still in force, it may be taken for granted

that red tape, and not an intelligent effort to serve the public, is at the root of the matter. It is extraordinary to what an extent certain library committees, especially those guided by timid or arrogant officers, will allow themselves to be blinded to the fact that a public municipal library is an institution based upon the broadest lines of mutual co-operation; in which every citizen has equal rights; and in which the rules should be drafted to protect the common proprietary rights, without penalizing any section of the community. To judge by some of the rules which have been published one would imagine that a public library was a kind of private trust or benefaction to which the citizens had the privilege of entry, subject to the caprice or good nature of a committee of owners, who had drawn up certain drastic rules to protect their personal property from the onslaughts and unwelcome attentions of a horde of goths and vandals. Fortunately this narrow, grudging spirit is rapidly dying out, and signs are not lacking of a general change in the direction of sweeping away useless and irksome restrictions upon public rights and liberties. A large proportion of this undue severity is traceable to the influence of librarians trained in old-fashioned methods, or those who are not sufficiently in sympathy with public requirements to exercise a wise discretion in the application of the regulations which they are appointed to enforce. A rigorous and indiscriminate execution of the rules and regulations may be commendable in many ways, but it is more what would be looked for in a warder or doorkeeper than in an educated officer appointed to assist and guide the public, and to forward, not obstruct, the people's aspirations in educational directions.

355. Hours.—The number of hours during which municipal libraries should remain open to the public will vary according to the local conditions, staff and funds of every town or district. In small places, with scanty populations and very little libraries with but one attendant, a few hours open at night on several days in the week, according to requirements, will serve every practical purpose. In towns of a fair size, say from 10,000 to 30,000 of a population, the reading rooms should be open all

day, uninterruptedly from 10 to 10, but the lending library need only be kept open from 10 to 2 and from 5 to 9. In large towns of over 40,000 inhabitants, the libraries should remain open all day from early morning till late at night—say from 8 A.M. till 10 P.M. for newsrooms; 9 A.M. till 10 P.M. for reference libraries; 10 A.M. till 9 P.M. for lending libraries; and 4 till 8 P.M. for juvenile departments, if any. There should be no interruptions to these services, either in the way of half- or whole-day closing to suit the staff, or any irregularity in hours on any plea whatsoever. The public library is a bureau for the supply of information, and should be found open at any time in a working-day, during which people are likely to use its resources. In large towns there is no necessary connexion between the public hours and the staff, and in an important matter of this kind, which affects the convenience of hundreds of people, the question of employing extra assistance, in order to keep the library open all day and every day without overworking the staff, should never be hesitated over. A public library which is not available at all reasonable times is not performing its work so effectually as it otherwise might, were full consideration given to public requirements. It may be argued that if one town of a certain size can keep its public libraries open all day and every day (save Sundays and holidays, of course), every similar town and all larger ones can easily do likewise. But, as may be seen by reference to Greenwood's *British Library Year Book*, 1900-1901, this is not invariably the case. For some unaccountable reason several of the library areas in the great metropolitan centre of London close, in whole or in part, one or more of their departments at least once a week. This contrasts most unfavourably with the enterprise shown by many small provincial towns, with half the means and less need to keep open, which, without overworking the staff, remain open all day to meet the requirements of all classes. A careful and well-constructed time-sheet will often get over difficulties which may seem to arise from under-staffing or other conditions. There are libraries in which, largely because of a badly constructed time-sheet, the assistants

are given but one evening off weekly, and work from eight to nine hours daily, although the library is closed for a half-day every week, and thus both assistants and public are incommoded.

356. Age Limits.—There are wide differences in the practice as regards the limit of age from which persons are allowed to use the libraries, but within recent years the opinion on this point has undergone a very considerable change. Formerly persons under eighteen and sixteen were forbidden the use of public libraries; now such high limits are very uncommon, though fourteen is still too frequently seen in the rules of otherwise progressive libraries. Of course, local conditions must receive due consideration in this matter, though it is difficult to think of any circumstance which calls for any distinction being made between children of twelve and those of fourteen years of age. There are hundreds of bright intelligent lads and girls of twelve who are the equals in knowledge and ability of their fellows of thirteen and fourteen years of age, and it seems wrong to fix any arbitrary age limit like thirteen, fourteen, fifteen and sixteen, when at twelve many children are discharged from the public schools. What seems much more reasonable would be the entire abolition of age limits in lending libraries, subject to the reservation that the librarian and his or her staff should have full discretionary power to refuse to issue books to any child unable to read and write. Failing this, the limit might be fixed at twelve where there are no separate juvenile libraries, but reduced to eight where such departments exist. There is a certain amount of trouble and inconvenience to adults resulting from admitting very young children, especially in open-access and other libraries without separate juvenile accommodation, and this would be partly met by the compromise proposed. Separate juvenile departments are the solution of the difficulty, and, when these can be provided all round, the age limit downwards can be abolished so far as they are concerned, while the limit for the adult library can be raised to twelve or fourteen. But adequate provision should be made

for interchanging, and all necessary facilities provided for enabling intelligent young people under the limit to procure more advanced books if desired, and also for allowing old men of seventy and eighty to procure the works of Ballantyne, Henty and other authors whom people in their second childhood appreciate and admire.

357. As regards age limits in reference libraries and reading rooms, there is more to be said for keeping them high than in the case of lending libraries, especially when there are separate juvenile reading rooms. But, generally speaking, there is no strong reason for excluding well-conducted boys or girls from a popular reading room, whatever their ages may be, provided they do not come during school hours, or do not otherwise make the library a place in which to hide from some duty. In some libraries, with age limits of twelve, fourteen or over, it is the practice to turn away younger children from news and reading rooms in cases where they are accompanied by their parents or elders. This is a monstrous abuse of a rule which was only intended to protect readers from the noisy incursions of irresponsible juveniles, who are wont to stray into public places out of sheer devilment, or accident, or excess of curiosity. To apply this rule to children in arms, or youngsters accompanied by and in charge of their elders, is simply a wanton and mischievous abuse of officialdom, which is calculated to greatly injure the popularity and prestige of municipal libraries in the eyes of all self-respecting citizens. The age limit for a reference library designed for students, with open access to the shelves, should be fixed at 14 or 16, with discretionary power to the librarian to grant permits to any studious youngster under that age. Where access to public reading rooms and juvenile departments is easy, there seems no good reason for throwing open the reference library to all and sundry, unless under the safeguards suggested.

358. **The Borrowing Right.**—There are several points in connexion with the borrowing rights of various classes of citizens which it is desirable to notice, especially as they have

much bearing on the question of a library's popularity and good management. In some towns the borrowing right is strictly confined to ratepayers or residents in the library district. Employees who live outside the district are excluded, but for what particular reason it is difficult to understand. An employee contributes directly to the material well-being of the district in which his work lies; he contributes indirectly but very substantially towards the payment of the rates; he spends most of his waking and all his work hours in the district; and in other ways he is as much a citizen as the resident who works outside the district and only sleeps in it at night. It is impossible to discover any reason for the distinction made between employee and resident in some places, and it may be pointed out that plenty of large towns grant the borrowing right to employees without the slightest inconvenience, difficulty or injustice to any one.

359. Another regulation which tells against the interests of municipal libraries is that in which every intending borrower, ratepayer or otherwise, is required to obtain the signatures of one or two registered ratepayers as guarantors before a ticket will be issued. It is not necessary to imagine reasons for this very serious obstacle to intending borrowers. Since many large and small towns dispense with this needless precaution in the case of ratepayers, and allow non-ratepayers and compounding householders to have tickets on the guarantee or recommendation of *one* ratepayer or on leaving a small deposit, there is no reason why this elaborate double guarantee should not be abolished all round. The time will doubtless come when guarantees of all kinds will be abolished, and suitable recommendations substituted.

360. There are other antiquated and needless restrictions in connexion with the borrowing right which need not be specified at length, but are grouped together here as examples of thoroughly bad rules for which there is very little justification.

1. The illegal charge of 1d. or 2d. for tickets or voucher forms, still levied in some places in defiance of the Public Libraries Act, 1892, Section 11, Sub-section (3); and various judicial decisions.

2. Requiring more than three days' notice before issuing a borrower's ticket. (In some places borrowers are required to wait for a week or fourteen days from the date of lodging their applications for tickets.)
3. Limiting the time for reading books to less than fourteen days.
4. Refusing to renew books by post-card or letter, and requiring that the actual books shall be brought back to be re-dated.
5. The imposition of fines amounting to more than 1d. per week or part of a week for overdue books. (In certain libraries, some of which are not pressed for funds, the exorbitant fine of 1d. per day is imposed for overdue books, with a time limit of seven, ten and fourteen days. This question is further considered in Section 361.)
6. Refusing to exchange books on the same day as that on which they are issued. (As the books which are brought back for exchange are usually those which the borrowers have read previously, there seems little need for such a disobliging rule.)
7. Refusing to issue books on the same day as that on which they are returned to the library. (A common practice in the old-fashioned libraries, worked by means of charging ledgers, but still found in several much more up-to-date libraries worked by means of indicators. The same craze for tantalizing the public has in a minor degree infected some open-access lending libraries which will not reissue returned books until they have been replaced on their shelves by the assistants.)
8. Charging borrowers 1d. or 2d. as a penalty for losing their tickets and requiring them to be reissued. (Query, a contravention of the Act.)
9. Disallowing the use of ink for copying purposes under all circumstances.
10. Allowing only one volume at a time to borrowers.
11. Restricting the number of books which a reference reader may have at one time.

361. Fines and Penalties.—So long as the present rate limitation remains as fixed by successive Acts of Parliament, fines will continue to be levied in British municipal libraries. There is no doubt that the small incomes realized in most public libraries from the niggardly provision made by Parliament is one cause of the efforts made in many cases to increase funds, by imposing fines of varying degrees of severity upon the borrowers from lending libraries. This is, indeed, the principal reason, though it is said that, but for penalties of some sort, books would never be returned at all. There may be some truth in this, as regards a small proportion of borrowers, but

the experience of Manchester and some American towns where no fines are imposed rather modifies the statement as to the supposed disastrous effects of non-fining. This, like many another question, is one on which the inexperienced theoretical objector can come out strong, by appealing to his imagination for details of all sorts of hardships, inconveniences and dangers arising as the result of abolishing fines. Every argument is directed towards showing how the library would suffer, and incidentally it has been mentioned that, perhaps, the undue retention of a popular book would prove very highly inconvenient to other readers who wanted it. These matters need not be discussed, since it must be obvious that popular books can always be duplicated to a certain extent; that more diligence can be exercised in the tracing, pursuit and ingathering of overdue popular books; and that there are methods of punishing hardened delinquent borrowers of this kind, by suspending their tickets, as is done at Manchester without serious results. But it is quite evident that in Britain fining for overdue books must be maintained until it is declared illegal—and no doubt, with bye-laws not legally confirmed, it is a doubtful practice, in England at all events—or Parliament has removed the rate limitation or provided other means of financial assistance, without all this scraping, pinching and doubtful means of increasing funds. What is suggested is more latitude in the imposition of fines, and a less eager desire to make money over the business than is implied in such fines as 1d. a day, and fines of two, three, four and five cents as charged in some American libraries. No library has a right or any need to make a profit out of such a transaction as fining overdue books, and it would be better to make a uniform charge of 1d. per week, or portion of a week, for books retained over a fortnight, when not renewed by postcard or otherwise.

362. Holiday- and Sunday-Opening.—Whether libraries are to be opened or not on public holidays and Sundays is largely a matter for local option. In some places libraries have been experimentally opened on PUBLIC HOLIDAYS on the sentimental

plea that many persons are unable to use them at any other time, and the result has been anything but encouraging. In other places, like sea-side and holiday resorts, they have been opened on such holidays, with decided advantage to trippers seeking shelter from inclement weather. Generally speaking, all libraries should be *closed* on public holidays, on the grounds that a general holiday should be generally observed as such, and that people are much better in the fresh air than sitting indoors in libraries or anywhere else on such occasions. If any exception to this were made it would be to open only on wet and stormy public holidays, but always except Christmas, and, in the case of Scotland, New Year's Day. The public holidays in Britain are too few and far between to effect any radical influence upon libraries or readers.

363. As regards SUNDAYS, conditions are rather different. To begin with there are more of them, and they come at regular intervals. But unless the need for Sunday-opening can be demonstrated by a satisfactory result derived from a series of trial openings, it is better for the libraries not to be opened as a mere concession to the views of certain societies, or the supposed utility of the movement to people who cannot come on week-days. If experiment proves that Sunday-opening is meeting a crying need, open the libraries by all means, but not otherwise. As a compromise it is suggested that if Sunday-opening is decided upon, the reading rooms only should be open between the hours of 3 and 9 P.M. on every Sunday between October and May inclusive. There is little need for Sunday-opening in warm weather—people are much better out-of-doors—especially if, as is usually the case, attendances fall off greatly.

Should the Sunday-opening question become a burning one in any town, arrangements might be made to open the reading room and reference library, provided at least 500 citizens take out tickets as an earnest of their intention to use the library. It is doubtful if in any town Sunday-opening has been limited to students and other inquirers, but it would form a reasonable

manner of settling a difficult question should opinion be sharply divided.

As regards ways and means of carrying on the business of a public library on holidays and Sundays, special arrangements must be made, both as regards the necessary attendants, heating, lighting and cleaning.

364. Enforcement of Rules.—There is nothing in the original English or Irish Acts which gives power to enforce rules and bye-laws, but in the Act of 1901 such may be obtained provided the rules are approved by the Local Government Board. In the Scotch Act very full provisions are made for the confirmation and enforcement of bye-laws. Clause 22 of the Act of 1887 reads: "It shall be lawful for the committee to make bye-laws for regulating all or any matters and things whatsoever connected with the control, management, protection and use of any property, articles or things under their control for the purposes of this Act, and to impose such penalties for breaches of such bye-laws not exceeding £5 for each offence, as may be considered expedient; and from time to time, as they shall think fit, to repeal, alter, vary or re-enact any such bye-laws, provided always that such bye-laws and alterations thereof shall not be repugnant to the law of Scotland, and before being acted on shall be signed by a quorum of the committee, and, except in so far as they relate solely to the officers or servants of the committee, such bye-laws shall be approved of by the magistrates and council, or the board, as the case may be, and shall be approved of and confirmed by the sheriff of the county in which the burgh or parish, or the greater part of the area thereof, is situated." Provision is also made for advertising and giving due notice of intention to adopt the bye-laws.

365. It should be stated, however, that there are quite a number of cases in which magistrates' decisions in England have upheld the rules of Public Library Committees with regard to recovery of fines for overdue books, the value of books lost and guaranteed, and on other points. In some of these cases it has not been held or suggested that guarantee or voucher forms

should be stamped as agreements, or that any limit under £5 should be placed on the amount of the guarantor's liability. Nevertheless, a value limit of £1 or £2 might be placed upon a guarantor's liability, and that will dispose of the awkward point as to the agreement being stamped.

366. Draft Rules and Regulations.—These draft rules are based upon a careful examination of the principal bye-laws adopted by many of the principal libraries in Britain and the United States, with certain modifications to harmonize them with certain leading principles advocated throughout this book. No two places are exactly alike in all their circumstances and local conditions, so that no library is likely to adopt these rules exactly as they stand. But they contain suggestions which may be found useful in drawing up and adopting a series of suitable rules, and enabling most vital points to be met. Some libraries have an enormous number of rules, amounting in some cases to fifty or sixty items, but many of these are quite unncessary and need not be considered. The draft rules drawn up by the Local Government Board may be obtained if thought needful; but they are printed separately in the *Library Association Record*, 1903, p. 28. The fewer and simpler the rules the more likely are the people to read and observe them.

LIBERTON PUBLIC LIBRARY.

Rules and Regulations.

GENERAL.

1. The Liberton Public Library is a society established for purposes of literature and science exclusively. The librarian shall have the general charge of the library, and shall be responsible for the safe-keeping of the books and for all the property belonging thereto.
2. The library is supported in part by a rate levied in accordance with the Public Libraries Acts and in part by annual voluntary contributions of money and gifts of books and periodicals. The library committee shall not make any dividend, gift, division, or bonus in money unto or between any of the members.
3. Admission is free to all parts of the library during the hours of opening, but no person shall be admitted who is disorderly, uncleanly or in a state of intoxication. Smoking, betting and loud conversation

or other objectionable practices are also forbidden in the rooms or passages of the library.

4. The librarian shall have power to suspend the use of the ticket of any borrower, and refuse books or deny the use of the reading rooms to any reader who shall neglect to comply with any of these rules and regulations, such reader having the right of appeal to the library committee, who shall also decide all other disputes between readers and the library officials.

5. Readers desirous of proposing books for addition to the library may do so by entering, on slips (*or* in a book) kept for the purpose, the titles and particulars of publication of such books, which will then be submitted to the committee at their first meeting thereafter. All suggestions on management to be written on slips or sent by letter to the committee.

6. Any person who unlawfully or maliciously destroys or damages any book, map, print, manuscript or other article belonging to the libraries shall be liable to prosecution for misdemeanour under the provisions of 24 & 25 *Vict.*, *c.* 97, *An Act to consolidate and amend the Statute Law of England and Ireland relating to malicious injuries to property*, 1861. The provisions of the statute entitled 61 & 62 *Vict.*, *c.* 53, *An Act to provide for the punishment of Offences in Libraries*, 1898, shall also apply.

Reference Department.

7. The library and reading room shall remain open on week-days from 9 A.M. till 10 P.M. (and on Sundays, from October to May inclusive, from 3 to 9 P.M.), but shall be closed on Christmas Day (New Year's Day), all public holidays and such other days as the committee may from time to time appoint.

8. Every person on entering the reference library shall sign his or her name, with the correct address, in a book kept for the purpose. Any one giving a false name or address shall be liable to prosecution, and shall not afterwards be allowed to use the library.

9. Every person before leaving the room shall return the book or books consulted into the hands of the librarian or his assistants, and must not replace books taken from the open shelves, but leave them with the assistant at the exit.

10. Any work in the lending department, if not in use, excepting those in Class N, Fiction, may be had on application at the reference library counter for perusal in the reading room, but on no account must such books be taken from the room.

11. Illustrations of all kinds may be copied, but not traced, save by permission of the librarian. Extracts from books may be copied in pencil. The use of ink is only permitted at certain tables which are reserved for the purpose. Certain works are only issued after a written application to the library committee.

Lending Department.

12. The lending library is open daily for the issue and receipt of books every week-day from 10 A.M. till 9 P.M., but shall be closed on Sundays, Christmas Day (New Year's Day), all public holidays and such other days as the committee may from time to time appoint.
13. Books shall be borrowed for home reading only by persons rated, resident or employed in the Borough of .. , or qualified by Rule 18.
14. All persons whose names appear on the current Roll of Electors of the Borough, or in the local directories as residents, may borrow books on their own responsibility, after filling up an application for a borrower's ticket, on a form provided for the purpose.
15. Other residents, and non-resident employees in the borough, over twelve (fourteen) years of age, may borrow books, but must first obtain a guarantee (or recommendation) from a duly qualified person, as defined in Rule 14, and must sign an application for a borrower's ticket, on forms to be provided by the librarian. But no such guarantor shall be allowed to assume responsibility for more than three other persons, unless by special arrangement with the committee, and in no single case shall his or her liability exceed £2 per person guaranteed.
16. Any person resident or employed in the borough, unable to obtain the signature of a qualified resident as a guarantee, may borrow books on leaving a deposit of 10s. with the librarian. The guarantee of the recognized head officials of Government departments, Friendly Societies and similar organizations may be accepted at the discretion of the Committee in lieu of an ordinary guarantee, for persons who are employed in the district.
17. The Application and Guarantee Form, duly signed, must be delivered to the librarian, and if, on examination, it is found correct, the borrower's ticket will be issued three days (*or* at once) after (excluding Sundays), but will only be delivered to the borrower in person. This ticket will be available at the central library or any branch or branches.
18. In accordance with Section 11 of the Public Libraries Act, 1892, the committee will lend books to persons, other than those duly qualified under Rules 13-16, who pay an annual subscription of 7s. 6d.; but such borrowers must conform, in every respect, to all the rules of the library, and shall have no privileges other than those possessed by the other borrowers.
19. The committee shall issue additional tickets to readers, available for all classes of literature save Fiction. Any duly enrolled borrower may have one of these extra tickets on filling up an application form as for an ordinary ticket. School teachers may have more than one ticket of this class on application to the librarian.

20. All tickets and vouchers must be renewed annually; each ticket and voucher being reckoned available for one year from date of issue.[1]

21. The borrower must return each volume lent within fifteen days, including days of issue and return, and shall be liable to a fine of 1d. per week or portion of a week for each volume lent, if not returned within that period, but the issue of a book may be renewed for a further period of fifteen days, dating from the day of intimation, on notice being given to the librarian either personally or in writing, and no further renewal will be allowed if the book is required by another reader. Books which are much in demand may, however, be refused such renewal at the discretion of the librarian.

22. Each volume on return shall be delivered to the librarian or his assistant, and if on examination it be found to have sustained any damage or injury, the person to whom it was lent, or his or her guarantor, shall be required to pay the amount of damage done or to procure a new copy or series of equal value, and, in the latter case, the person supplying the new copy shall be entitled to the damaged copy or series on depositing the new one.

23. Borrowers who are unable to obtain a particular non-fictional book, and desire that it shall be retained for them on its return, must give its title, number, etc., to the assistant, and pay 1d. to cover cost of posting an intimation that it is available for issue; but no book will be kept longer than the time mentioned in the notice sent. Novels cannot be reserved under this rule.

24. Borrowers are required to keep the books clean. They are not to turn down or stain the leaves, nor to make pencil or other marks upon them. They must take the earliest opportunity of reporting any damage or injury done to the books they receive, otherwise they will be held responsible for the value of the same.

25. If an infectious disease breaks out in any house containing books belonging to the library, such books are not to be returned to the library, but must be handed over to the Medical Officer of Health or any sanitary officer acting on his behalf. Until such infected house is declared free of disease by the Medical Officer of Health, no books will be issued from the libraries to any person or persons residing therein. In similar circumstances non-resident ratepayers or employees must return their books to the Borough Medical Officer, and cease to use the libraries till their residences are certified free from infection.

26. Only actual borrowers who are enrolled on the register of the library shall have the right of direct access to the book-shelves, but their re-

[1] In some libraries the practice has arisen of making tickets permanent, as long as the holder resides in the district, without renewal annually. In place of renewal, a revision takes place, to ensure accuracy of addresses, etc.; where this is so, Rule 20 is unnecessary.

presentatives may be admitted at the discretion of the librarian or his assistants. To prevent disappointment, these representatives should come provided with a list of several book-titles and numbers.

27. Any change in the residence of borrowers or their guarantors, or notice of withdrawal of guarantee, must be intimated to the librarian within one week.
28. Borrowers leaving the district or ceasing to use the library are required to return their tickets to the librarian in order to have them cancelled; otherwise they and their guarantors will be held responsible for any books taken out in their names.
29. No person under twelve years of age shall be eligible to borrow books or make use of the adult library, except by the librarian's permission.

General Reading and Magazine Rooms.

30. The general reading room shall remain open on week-days from 8 A.M. till 10 P.M., and the magazine room from 9 A.M. till 10 P.M. (and on Sundays, from October to May inclusive, from 3 to 9 P.M.). Both rooms shall be closed on Christmas Day (New Year's Day), all public holidays, and such other days as the committee may from time to time appoint.
31. No persons under twelve years of age, unless accompanied by their parents or elders capable of controlling them, shall be allowed to use these rooms, except by permission of the librarian or his assistants.
32. Any persons who use these rooms for purposes of betting, or who in any way cause obstruction or disorder in these or any other rooms or passages of the libraries, are liable to be proceeded against under the provisions of 61 & 62 *Vict.*, *c.* 53, *An Act to Provide for the Punishment of Offences in Libraries*, 1898.
33. Readers in possession of newspapers or other periodicals must be prepared to resign them to any other reader who may ask to peruse them, ten minutes after the request has been made through one of the library staff.

Juvenile Room.

34. The juvenile reading room and library shall remain open from 4 till 8 P.M. daily on Monday to Friday inclusive, and from 10 A.M. till 6 P.M. on Saturdays.
35. The admission is free to every boy or girl under (twelve) fourteen years of age residing in the Borough of . . .. who is able to write and read; but they must obtain a guarantee (or recommendation) from their parents or school teacher as to good behaviour and safe return of all books.
36. Only one book per week will be allowed to each borrower.
37. Application for tickets admitting to the reading room must be made at the library.

There are certain admonitory rules which are best displayed in frames in placard form, such as:—

SILENCE
IS REQUESTED.

NO CONVERSATION ALLOWED.

NO DOGS ADMITTED.

CYCLISTS ARE REQUESTED TO KEEP THEIR MACHINES OUTSIDE THE BUILDING.

PLEASE WIPE YOUR BOOTS.

NO ADMISSION THIS WAY.

NO SMOKING ALLOWED.

and so on. Some of the general rules would be much more effective if displayed in this form.

367. Notes on Rules.—1 and 2. These rules are included for the purpose of qualifying for the certificate of exemption from local rates, as described in the introductory Sections.

15. In some libraries the guarantee of responsible heads of large government and other departments is accepted for all the employees, and secretaries of associations and school teachers have also been accepted. In the first case the association has become responsible for all its eligible members, and signs through its secretary. In the second case the teacher assumes

responsibility for all his eligible pupils. Some libraries have abolished the guarantee for non-ratepayers.

16. DEPOSITORS should be treated exactly the same as ordinary borrowers, and their tickets and numbering should go through the same routine. The money received from deposits may either be paid into the bank and repaid as wanted by depositors from petty cash, or held by the librarian and repaid when called up. Deposit money of this kind when paid into the bank tends somewhat to complicate and falsify the accounts by recording receipts which do not belong to the library, and inflating the petty cash expenditures. The practice differs in all places as regards this point, and we recommend librarians to keep a separate account of these moneys, whether paid into the bank or not.

18. Under the powers conferred by the 1892 Act, many public libraries now permit persons residing outside the district who are not otherwise qualified to become borrowers on payment of an annual SUBSCRIPTION, ranging from 5s. to 10s. The money received from this source should be paid into the subscriptions account at the bank, and a proper receipt given to the subscriber, showing how long the subscription is current.

21. The RENEWAL OF BOOKS is generally allowed without question, if no inquiries for them in the interval have been recorded. In other cases, such renewals must, of course, be refused, unless the books are not returned, in which case nothing can be done. Here again the eternal fiction question crops up, and there are reasonable doubts if the right of renewal should be allowed in the case of novels. With heavier books it is quite another matter, and students should certainly be allowed to renew within all reasonable limits. A form of renewal slip is used at some libraries which may be useful. Copies are taken away by any borrower who thinks he may require them, and if he desires to renew a book, he simply fills up a slip and sends it by hand or post to the library. The assistant then picks out the card from the charging system and redates the book-card, leaving the renewal slip in the pocket. The renewals

are all picked out and sorted in one sequence behind a special guide, so that when a book is returned which has not been re-dated, it is easy to find it. Renewals should count as reissues, and a record should be made of the issue of all books which are thus renewed.

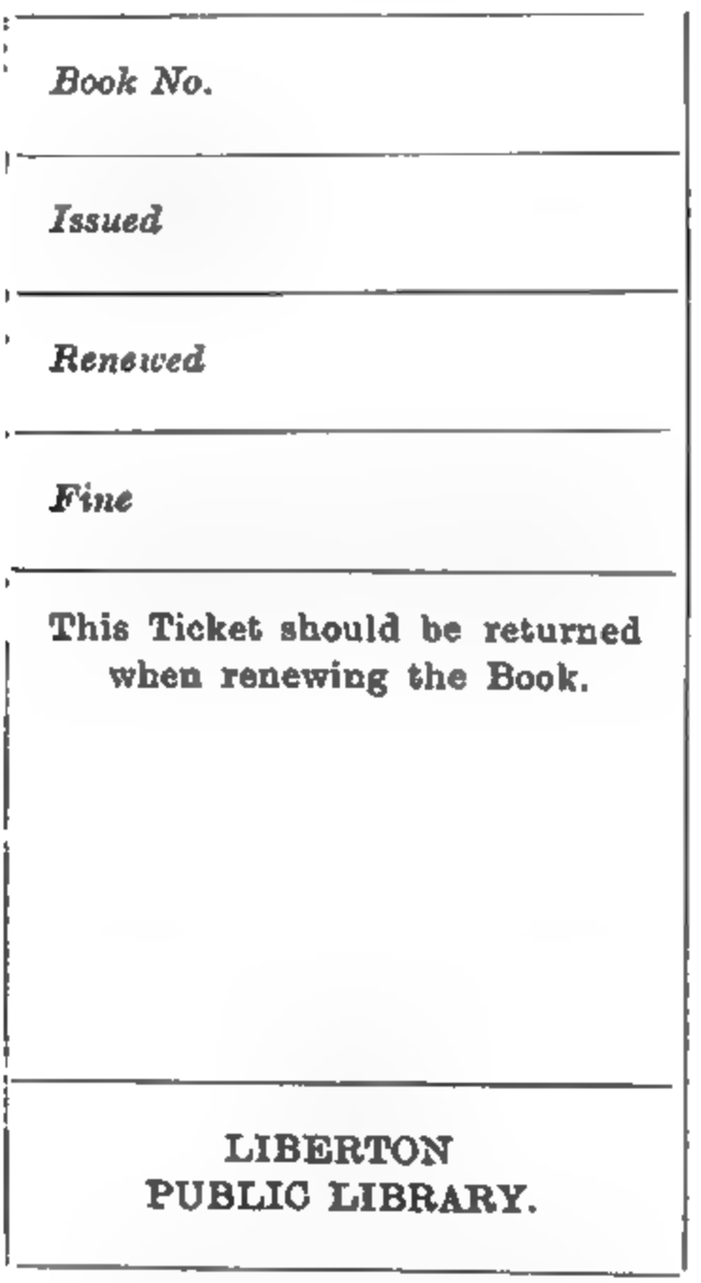


FIG. 121.—Renewal Slip (Section 367 (21)).

23. The practice of RESERVING BOOKS has been adopted in many libraries, and within certain limits it is useful. The chief points connected with the matter are whether all books should be reserved, and how many orders for the same popular book should be booked at once. As regards the first point, it is wise to exclude Fiction from the operation of the rule, partly for the reason that in this class duplicates of popular novels are

generally stocked, and also because it is necessary in a democratic institution like a public library to restrict as much as possible any privilege which may seem to favour one class to the exclusion of another. There is no doubt that the charge of 1d. will practically exclude many poor people from participating in this method of book-reservation, and therefore the limitation of the practice to non-fictional works only is advised. As regards the second point, librarians will have to exercise a nice discretion as to how many readers they will place on the rota at one time, as it is quite conceivable that to reserve any popular work twenty or thirty times ahead is simply to cut it off from general circulation for an indefinite period. In the case of very popular books, the possibility of buying a special copy for reservation should be contemplated. As regards the method of working the system of reserving books, the usual plan is to sell a 1d. post-card to the borrower, who addresses it to himself and enters the name of the book wanted. These post-cards are then returned to the librarian, who arranges them in order, and, as the books are stopped on return, sends out the post-card next in order. A usual form for the post-card is as follows: "Please note that the book ..... reserved by you, has now been returned, and will be kept for you till the evening of .....". The assistant fills in the date when the book should be claimed. Of course, borrowers who fail to claim miss their turn. A separate register of these reserved books can be kept in addition to the cards, if thought advisable. A receipt should, of course, be given for each 1d. received, and in some libraries the numbers of the books reserved are written on the counterfoils.

25. Infectious Diseases Notification.—Authorities differ greatly on the point as to the power of books to carry and disseminate disease. American and English bacteriologists, after exhaustive searches and tests, say that dirty books cannot convey infection, whilst German and French scientists declare that they can. As library assistants are continually turning over, handling and inhaling the dust, etc., from lending library books without

bad results, it may be assumed that the danger of infection, if it exists at all, is greatly exaggerated. But as the public mind is somewhat excited over this question, it is necessary for public library authorities to take steps to reassure the people that everything is done to prevent disease being communicated through the medium of library books. The Public Health Acts are quite clear on the point that persons suffering from infectious diseases, or in charge of other persons so suffering, are liable to penalties for lending any article; and this would cover the case of a library which reissued a book which came from an infected house. The practice should therefore be for the local sanitary authority to seize all library books found on disease-infected premises, and simply destroy them after due notification to the library authority. A further notification should be sent to the library when the house has been disinfected and declared free from disease, as in the meantime the librarian has stopped the issue of books to persons in the disease-stricken house from the date of the first intimation. There are various forms of notice used for notifying when and where disease breaks out, and what books are destroyed, and also for declaring the infected house free from disease. As regards the disinfection of books by means of fumes, etc., the opinion is that it cannot be properly done without destroying the bindings, and it is best to take the extreme course in view of the public fears. As regards the cost of replacing such destroyed books, the local sanitary authority can be called upon to do this under the provisions of the Public Health Acts, 1901, but unless the annual loss is very great, it seems hardly advisable to raise the point. In small places or towns with very limited book funds, the sanitary authority should certainly be asked to replace all books which are destroyed. It is a wise plan to keep a separate record of books which are destroyed in the interest of the public health. This need not note any further particulars than the dates, titles and numbers of books, and cost. A column can be reserved for remarks.

REFERENCE LIST OF AUTHORITIES :—

368. Rules—

Brett (W. H.) Regulations for readers. U. S. Educ. Rept., 1892-3, v. 1, p. 939.
Dana (J. C.) Public service. *In his* "Library primer," p. 122.
Mathews (E. R. N.) Public library bye-laws and regulations. L. A. R., v. 6, p. 279.

369. Hours—

Duval (L. M.) Library hours (opening and closing hours). P. L., 1900, p. 379.
Library hours. Greenwood's Year book, 1900, p. 236.

370. Sunday-Opening—

Barnett (Canon) Sunday labour in public libraries, etc. Greenwood's Year book, 1897, p. 102.
Cutler (M. S., Mrs. Fairchild) Sunday-opening of public libraries. U. S. Educ. Rept., 1892-1893, v. 1, p. 771.
Greenwood (T.) Sunday-opening of public libraries. *In his* "Public libraries," 1894, p. 458; *and statistics in the* "British library year book," 1900, p. 236.
Shaw (A. C.) Sunday-opening of free libraries. L. A. R., v. 8, p. 79.

371. Infectious Diseases—

Books as carriers of disease. L. J., v. 21, p. 150.
Johnston (T.) The Replacement of "Infected" books. L. W., v. 4, p. 6.
Rivers (J.) Do public library books spread disease? L. W., v. 7, p. 143.
Willcock (W. J.) Notification of infectious disease and the public library. L. W., 1899, p. 89.

372. Open Access—

See "Manual of Library Economy," 1903, pp. 445-468, for discussion of policy and list of articles on the subject. Recent articles :—

Brown (J. D.) Open-access lending departments. L. W., v. 9, p. 41.
Jast (L. S.) A Note on open access in America. L. W., v. 7, p. 141.

CHAPTER XXIII.

REGISTRATION OF BORROWERS.

373. Voucher Forms.—There are all kinds of voucher forms in use in the municipal libraries of the United Kingdom, ranging in size from foolscap folio to that of a post-card. These vouchers are the application forms on which borrowers apply for tickets entitling them to use the library, and they form the basis of the necessary registration of borrowers which all libraries must perform. It is not needful to describe more than one form, because it is gradually being adopted, with variations to suit different localities, as the standard system of the country. The legal questions connected with the validity of certain forms of guarantee are also beyond the scope of this article, because judicial rulings have been obtained on all kinds of forms, and the only point requiring consideration, that of the amount of a guarantor's liability, has already been discussed.

A form of voucher which can be used as a movable card is preferable to a large slip, which requires binding in volumes, or other special means of preservation; and the size and style of cards given on pp. 326 and 327 will be found satisfactory.

These voucher cards should be printed on a stout, tinted material, say, green or pink in colour, and handed free to any ratepayer or resident entitled to borrow books on his or her own guarantee. When returned filled up, they are duly examined to ascertain if the applicant is a duly qualified person, and when this is done the card is filed, after it has been numbered from

the number book, and the borrower's card made out. The space in the top left-hand corner is to hold the borrower's name, boldly written in as a catch-word for alphabetical arrangement. The No. .. space at the top right-hand corner is for the borrower's progressive number. The Date .... space at the bottom left-hand corner is the date of application, which also becomes the date of expiry one year later. The Register No. .. space at the bottom right-hand corner is for the applicant's number on

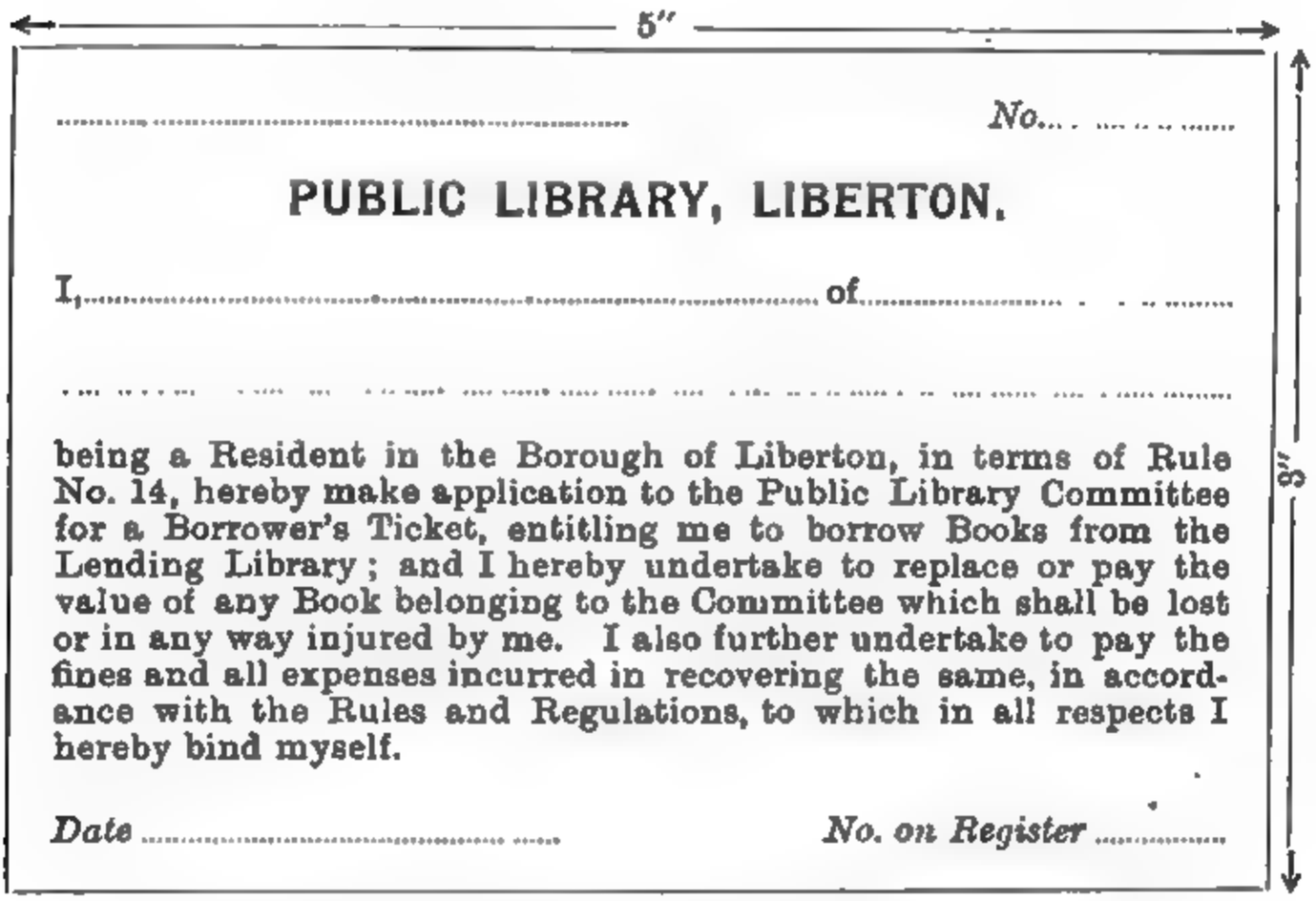

5"
No.
PUBLIC LIBRARY, LIBERTON.
I, of
being a Resident in the Borough of Liberton, in terms of Rule No. 14, hereby make application to the Public Library Committee for a Borrower's Ticket, entitling me to borrow Books from the Lending Library; and I hereby undertake to replace or pay the value of any Book belonging to the Committee which shall be lost or in any way injured by me. I also further undertake to pay the fines and all expenses incurred in recovering the same, in accordance with the Rules and Regulations, to which in all respects I hereby bind myself.
Date
No. on Register
3½"

FIG. 122.—Voucher for a Ratepayer Applicant (Section 373).

the current electors' roll. It is a useful thing to mark this roll with the numbers of the cards of any borrowers for whom a ratepayer may be guarantor, in all cases where a limit is put to the number whom one person may guarantee. There is generally plenty of marginal space for this purpose.

374. Passing now to the voucher forms for non-ratepayer applicants, the following are examples of a good style of card, showing the information and guarantee form occupying both sides :—

5″

..... *No.* ... .

PUBLIC LIBRARY, LIBERTON.

I, ...of ... .

... ...employed at ....

.... being over ....years of age, hereby make application to the Liberton Public Library Committee for a Borrower's Ticket, entitling me to borrow Books from the Lending Library, in accordance with the Rules and Regulations thereof, with which I hereby undertake to comply, and I submit on the other side the guarantee which I have obtained.

Date ....

[OVER

FIG. 123.—Front of Voucher for Non-Ratepayer Applicant (Section 374).

GUARANTOR'S VOUCHER.

The Applicant must obtain the following Voucher signed by a Resident as a Guarantee:—

"I, the undersigned, being a Resident in the Borough of Liberton, in terms of Rule No. 15, declare that I believe this applicant to be a person to whom Books may be safely entrusted for perusal; and I hereby undertake to replace or pay the value of any Book belonging to the Liberton Public Library Committee, to the amount of £2, which shall be lost or in any way injured by the said borrower; I also undertake to pay the fines and expenses incurred in recovering the same."

Name ....

In some libraries the guarantee form has been entirely abandoned in favour of a recommendation which carries with it no explicit liability for losses.

The vouchers for non-ratepayer applicants should be dealt with in the same way as those for ratepayers, *viz.*, checked with registers and filed in the alphabetical order of surnames, after tickets have been made out and an entry made in the number book.

Vouchers for juvenile applicants can be made out in a somewhat similar form, with such necessary alterations as may be required to suit local conditions.

375. Vouchers for students or duplicate cards require no separate wording. The word DUPLICATE stamped boldly across one corner will be sufficient to denote the difference. The same holds good with regard to vouchers for those who make a deposit in lieu of obtaining a written guarantee, or who subscribe in terms of Rule 18. The words DEPOSITOR OF ..... or SUBSCRIBER OF . and the date can be written or stamped on the back of the card. Of course there is no reason beyond avoiding a multiplicity of cards and too much red-tape, why a library should not provide separate forms for every class of applicant, with differently coloured cards, etc., but it seems quite unnecessary, unless there are special local circumstances to be considered.

376. Tickets.—Various forms of borrowers' tickets are used with indicators and card charging, but only the kinds most commonly used need be described. One form is shown below (Fig. 125) for libraries in which borrowers retain their tickets when they have no books on loan. They are made with cloth backs to fold across, and the one with the clipped corner is a good form to adopt for students' or extra tickets available for non-fictional works only. It is not absolutely necessary to keep a record of book numbers on the readers' cards, and the variety shown is not ruled for this purpose :—

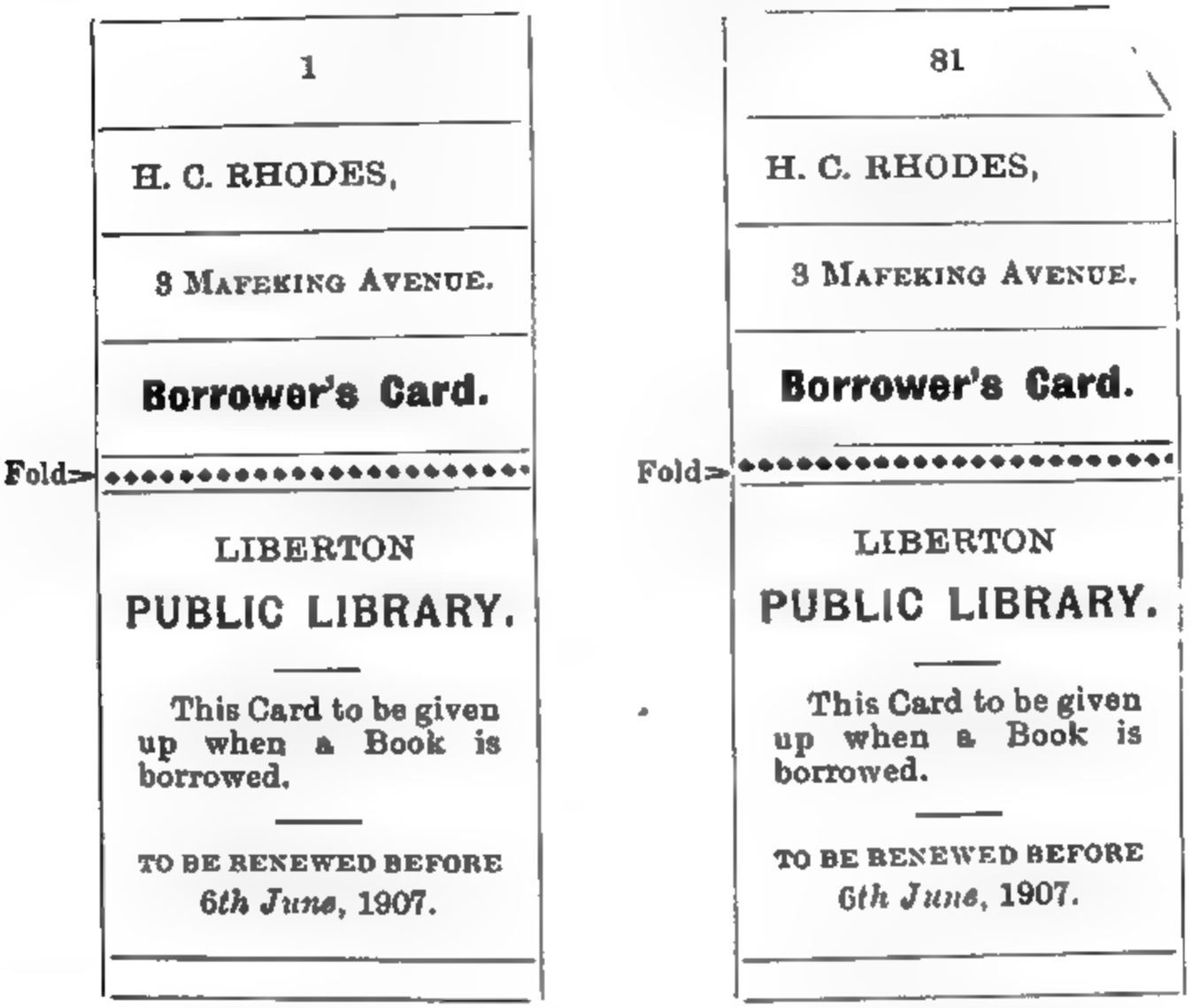


FIG. 125.—Borrower's Card (Section 376).

This ticket can be used with any kind of issue method, and it is therefore noted here instead of with other cards among the charging systems.

377. The plan of issuing DUPLICATE or STUDENTS' tickets available for non-fictional works only, in addition to an ordinary ticket available for all classes of literature, first became popular in Britain in 1893, and arose out of a suggestion made by Mr. J. Y. W. MacAlister at the Library Association Conference at Aberdeen. In America this is generally known as the "Two-Book System," and it became very widely adopted after 1894. There are decided advantages about the plan of allowing borrowers to have two books at a time, and there is no doubt it greatly enhances the value of the public library to many people. As indicated by Rule 19, Section 366, special privileges are

recommended to be extended to school teachers, who ought to be allowed any number of books, within reason, required for their special and important work of education. There is no objection to allowing special privileges to all earnest students engaged on special lines of research, provided no injustice is done to the general work of the library or to students similarly engaged. Certainly it is better to lend a real student half a dozen or more books at a time than to have these books lying idle at the library, or collecting dust for the future annoyance of the librarian. Of course, in libraries with more readers than books, if there are any, extra tickets will require to be issued with caution, but in all large libraries the privilege can be extended without fear or hesitation.

378. Registration.—All borrowers' tickets should be numbered in a progressive series, and the same number should be given to the same borrower as long as he or she remains connected with the library. This prevents overlapping and the clumsy method of numbering continuously up to a certain limit and counting off the early numbers; a doubtful way of ascertaining the total number of actual borrowers at any given time. A number register should be obtained ruled as on the next page.

In this each borrower is entered as he joins, receiving the first vacant number, which is also carried on to his voucher and ticket. The column is chosen which represents the year in which his ticket expires, and against the number is written the borrower's name, and under it the month and day when the ticket expires. The holder of a given ticket can be ascertained very rapidly by this method, and time-expired or dead ticket-holders can be counted off without trouble. But it is necessary to mark or qualify the entries in order to do this. An easy way to indicate an expired ticket is to mark the register with a blue tick (✓) as shown above (No. 2). These expired numbers should be given to new borrowers, so as to keep the register filled up and complete, and at the end of a given period, when it is time to ascertain the number of "live" or actual ticket-

holders, it is only necessary to count the blue ticks, and deduct their total from the last number of the series, in order to obtain the exact number of current borrowers. A number register book ruled as shown under will last for many years. It is not necessary to print the progressive numbers or years, and it will facilitate counting operations if fifty numbers are allowed for every page. Duplicate or special ticket-holders numbered in a separate series should be entered in a special

No.	1901.	1902.	1903.	1904.	1905.	1906.	1907.
1	H. C. Rhodes June 4	H. C. Rhodes June 6					
2	P. Krüger ✓ June 4	J. Burns July 10					
3							
4							
5							
6							
7							
8							
9							

FIG. 126.—Borrowers' Number Register (Section 378).

book, and juvenile ticket-holders can be treated in a similar fashion.

379. To prevent the possibility of a number of tickets being obtained by the same individuals, all tickets should be issued from the central library of a town, and such tickets should be made interchangeable. There does not seem to be any advantage attached to issuing tickets from branches separately, or in confining the residents in particular localities to a local branch. The residents in a town should be entitled to use any of the libraries, and a central registration of borrowers is therefore

essential. Of course, the actual distribution of the tickets can take place through the branch where application was made, but after that a ticket should be universal.

380. When the borrowers' vouchers have been duly checked, numbered, and the tickets have been written out, they should be filed in alphabetical order of the borrowers' surnames in

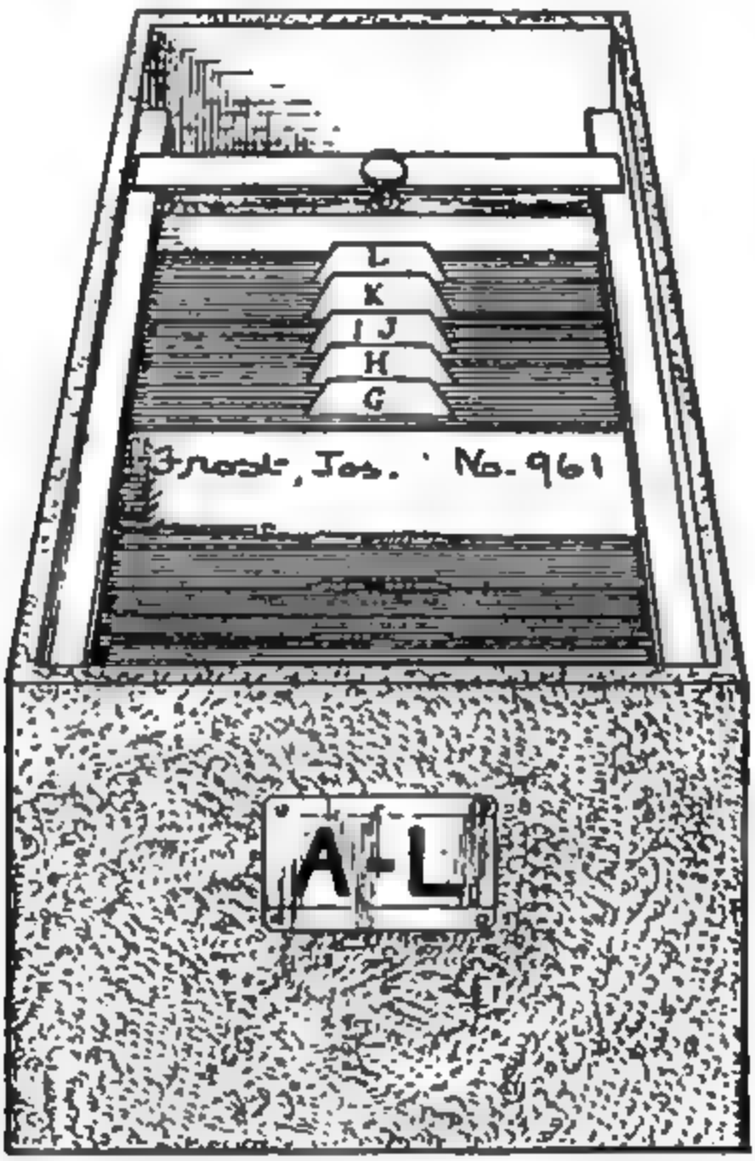


FIG. 127.—Borrowers' Voucher Tray (Section 380).

properly guided trays, supplied with all necessary angle blocks, etc., as in the case of charging and card-catalogue trays. These form the alphabetical index to the borrowers, while the borrowers' number register supplies the numerical side. Thus any question regarding borrowers can be answered without delay. It is not necessary to keep an alphabetical index of guarantors if the electors' roll is marked as previously suggested.

381. Reference List of Authorities:—

Birge (E. A.) The effect of the "Two-Book" system on circulation. Lib. J., 1898, p. 93.

Bolton (C. K.) Bettering circulation in small libraries. The "Two-Book" system. Lib. J., 1894, p. 161.

Cotgreave (A.) Disadvantages of the two-ticket system. L., v. 8, p. 260.

Jones (G. M.) Cards for the "Two-Book" system. Lib. J., 1895, p. 168.

MacAlister (J. Y. W.) New ways of keeping down the issues of fiction. L., v. 6, p. 236. ("Two-Book" system.)

Miner (S. H.) The "Two-Book" system. P. L., 1897, p. 173.

382.

Registration of borrowers. (Symposium.) L. J., 1890, pp. 97, 74.

Savage (E. A.) A Union register of borrowers. L. A. R., 1903, p. 307.

CHAPTER XXIV.

ISSUE METHODS.

383. In modern library practice, methods of book-registration involving the use of ledgers or day-books have now been almost entirely abandoned, save in a few proprietary and subscription libraries. It will, therefore, be needless to describe charging systems so generally discarded, and it will suffice if reference is made to the first edition of this work, in which many forms were illustrated and explained.

384. The great objection to all charging ledgers in book form was their want of movability or adjustability. The entries when once made were fixed, either in a running sequence under a date of issue, a borrower's name, or a book's title. If, for any purpose, it should be desirable to manipulate the entries, in order to secure greater accuracy, or some definite record of a special kind, the book ledgers did not lend themselves to this sort of treatment. There was no kind of movability possible, and questions which might be answered readily enough if entries were movable and separate, could not be put to any issue record in volume form. Chiefly because of this, the slip or card methods of charging have been introduced, which enable registration to be conducted in a variety of ways for different purposes. It is impossible to say when or where cards were first introduced, but as they have been used for commercial purposes for years before the public library system was thought about, it follows that many minds must have discovered the utility and convenience of movable entries. There are many varieties of card or slip charging in existence, and innumerable methods of work-

ing or applying them. Movable entry systems are in every respect the most interesting, not only because they present greater possibilities to the ingenious mind, but because they are more scientific and more natural.

385. There have been numerous systems devised for recording issues of books from public libraries, but in none have so many variations been introduced as in the great group using cards as a basis. Not only do card methods exist in plenty everywhere, but there is hardly any limit to be put to the variety of ways in which they can be used. Without describing in detail every system, it will nevertheless be interesting to select and describe typical plans from among the more practical varieties, as representative of each particular group. The fundamental idea of all card systems of charging is that a book shall be represented by a movable card, which can be stored in various ways when the book is on the shelf, and used to register or charge the book, when issued, to its borrower.

386. When cards are used as movable entries, there is no need to keep a column for showing date of return ; and, before describing a method of working, the following specimen ruling for a card is given :—

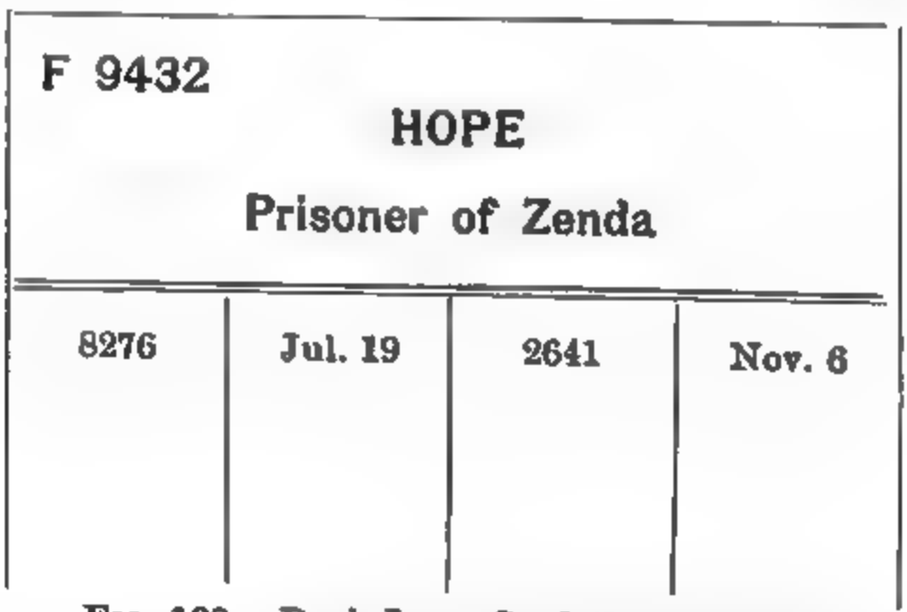


FIG. 128.—Book Issue-Card (Section 386).

The first and third columns may be used for the borrowers' numbers, and the second and fourth for dates of issue, as shown above, or all four columns may be used for borrowers' numbers.

The backs of the cards may be ruled the same, without the heading. These cards are kept in a strict numerical order of progressive numbers in trays or drawers. When a book is chosen by a borrower, the card representing it is withdrawn from its place, the borrower's number and date of issue entered, the date of issue stamped on the date label of the book, and the transaction is complete when the book-card is placed in a tray, or behind a special block bearing the date of issue. At the end of the day the cards are all sorted up in numerical order, as far as possible, the statistics made up from them, and they are then put away in the dated issue trays, or behind date blocks in drawers. When a book is returned, its date and number direct the assistant to the exact number of the book-card, which is withdrawn, and at leisure replaced in the main sequence. No other marking off is necessary, and the book is immediately available for issue. Overdues gradually declare themselves, as day after day passes, and the cards for books in circulation diminish in number as returns are made. This is card charging of a simple kind, and it forms the basis of all the more elaborate and, perhaps, more scientific systems.

387. Of late years the pocket system of card charging has become very popular in the United Kingdom, and is now being used not only as a separate method, but also in connexion with, or as an adjunct to, many of the indicators.

388. The card-charging method used with open access, and also alone, or in conjunction with indicators, is a loose pocket system in which each book is represented by a manila card (about 4 × 2 inches) ruled on both sides to take borrowers' numbers and dates of issues. Every borrower is represented by a card of a similar kind, but one inch shorter (*see* Fig. 129). When a book is issued its card is taken from the tray, and, with the borrower's card, is placed in a loose manila pocket, the date of issue is stamped on the date label inside the book and the borrower receives the volume. It is customary in most open-access libraries to hand the borrower his card when his book is discharged. If he does not want another book at the moment,

he retains his card for the future, but if he does want another he selects one in the usual way, and hands it and his ticket to the assistant at the exit charging wicket, where both are registered very rapidly by simply selecting the book-card and placing it with the borrower's card in a loose pocket. In some libraries the conjoined book and borrower cards are simply sorted by

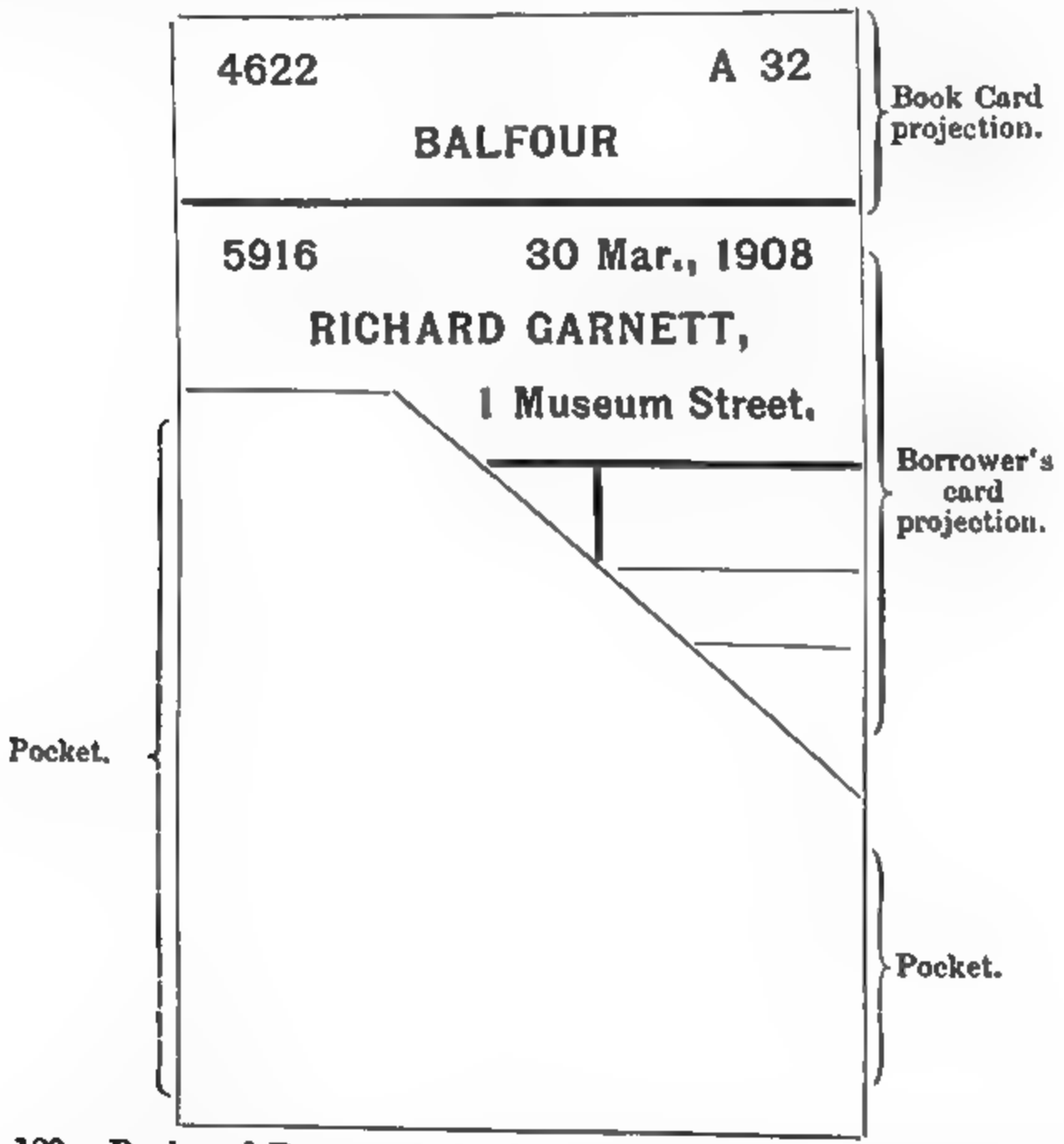


FIG. 129.—Book and Borrower's Cards Combined in Pocket (Section 388).

book numbers and arranged behind projecting date guides in the issue trays. In others this is postponed till the book numbers have been carried on to the book-cards. Whatever method of registration is adopted the ultimate result is that a complete charge is got by mechanical means, which obviates the need for writing at the moment of issue. The plan of keeping the book-cards in pockets inside the books has been

adopted in some libraries, but of course this destroys the value of the system as an indicator to the staff of books in and out. At the same time, in open-access libraries particularly, it facilitates service at the moment of issue. The conjoined cards of this loose pocket system appear as in the subjoined diagram (Figs. 131-2).

389. The following diagrams show one of the principal systems of card charging now used in British libraries. Each

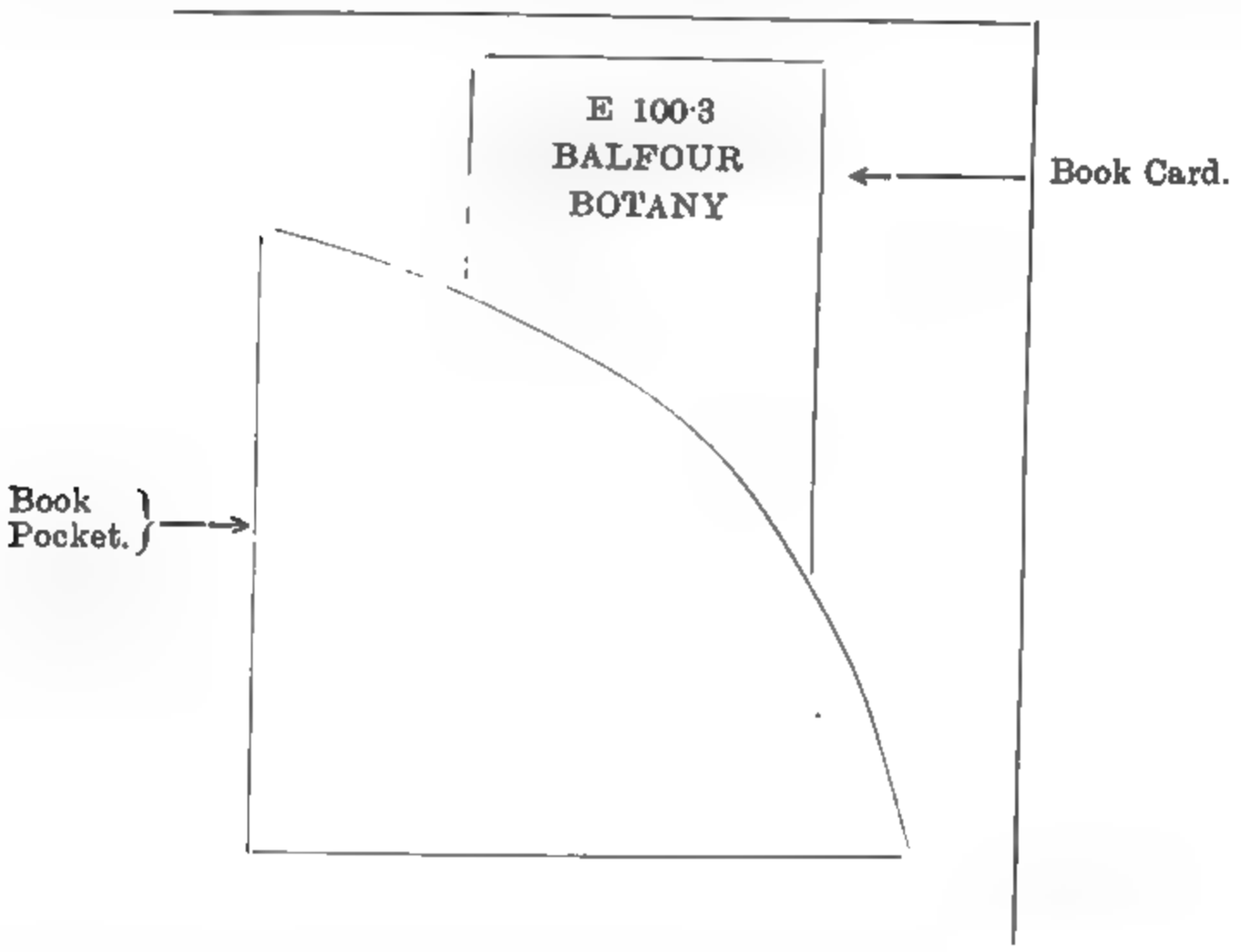


FIG. 130.—Book Pocket and Card.

book has a small triangular pocket inside the front board, in which is placed a small book-card ($2'' \times 1\frac{1}{8}''$ inches) of manila, on which is written the class number, author and title of the book it represents. In cases of duplicate copies it is advisable to write the accession number on the book card to facilitate stocktaking. Each book also has a date label inside the front board facing the book pocket (Fig. 130).

Each borrower has a neat linen-covered or other card bearing the name of the library, the name, address and number of

the borrower and the date when the card was issued. When a book is issued, the borrower hands his card and the book chosen

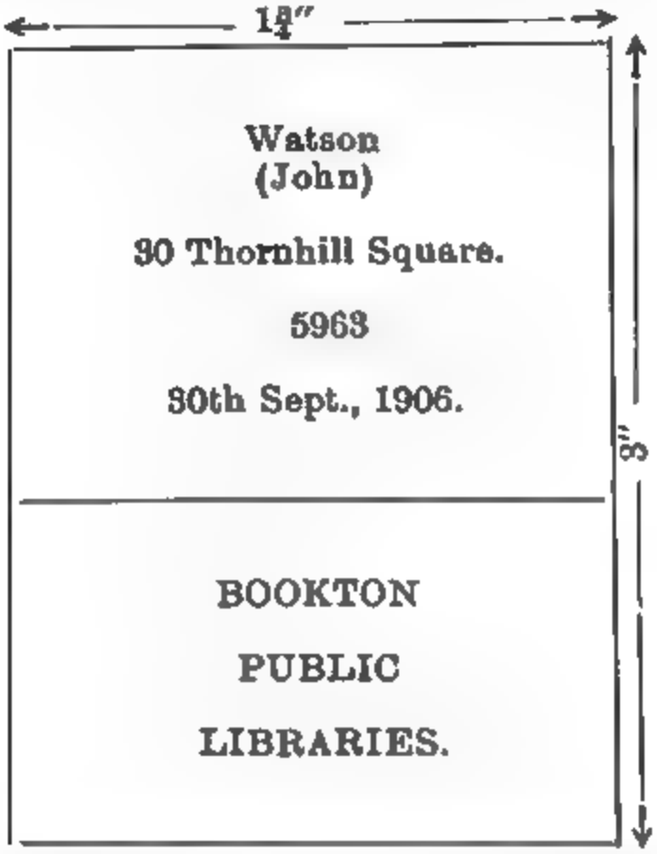


Fig. 131—.Borrower's Card with Pocket.

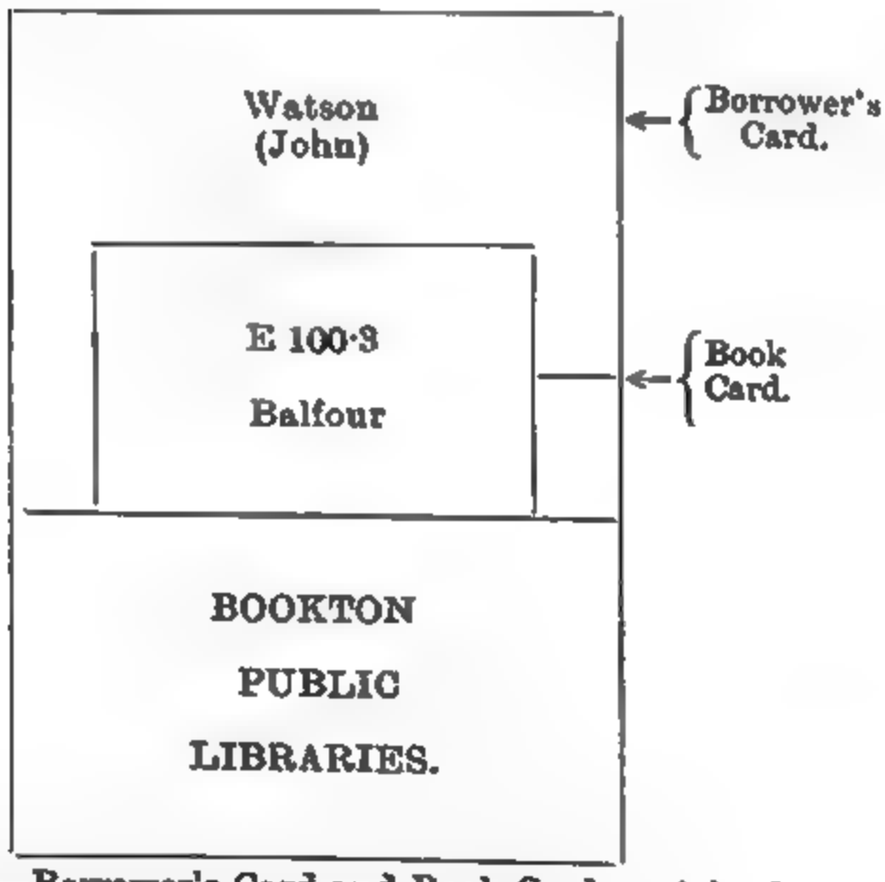


Fig. 132.—Borrower's Card and Book Card conjoined.

to the assistant, who takes the book-card from the book-pocket and places it in the pocket of the borrower's card, stamps the

date of issue or return on the date label and issues the book. The conjoined book and borrower cards are then arranged in trays as described below, and thus give a perfect record without writing.

390. Charging Appliances.—An important part of a card method is the tray for holding and displaying the cards, and of this there are a number of kinds in use in libraries using indicators and in those working without them. For many reasons, but above all for economy of space, it is best to use a com-

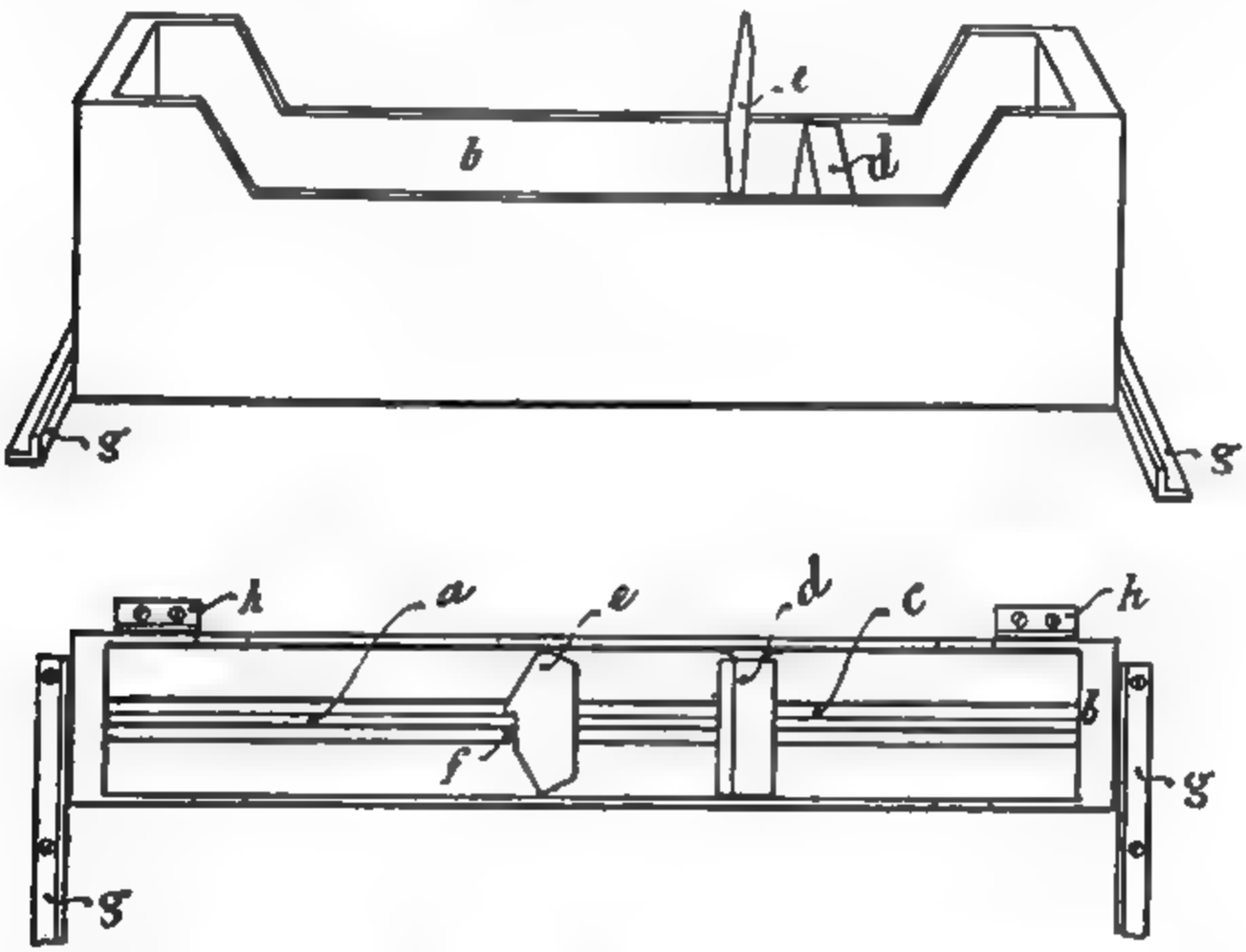


FIG. 133.—Elevation and Plan of Card-charging Tray (Section 391).

paratively small-sized charging card, the advantage being that all the accessories such as trays, guides, etc., are correspondingly small, cheap and easily handled.

391. A standard size of card tray made of wood is shown in Fig. 133.

This tray (*b*) is provided with a rod (*a*) for securing the guides (*e*) in a continuous slot (*c*) at the bottom, to carry and secure the slot-fastening (*f*) of the guides (*e*). It has cut-away sides to facilitate the handling of the cards; a back slide or block (*d*)

to retain the cards at any convenient or required angle; angle-bars and catch pieces of brass (*g* and *h*) to secure a series of trays firmly in place, and prevent upsetting or knocking about. For every kind of card charging, whether in connexion with an indicator or without, this style of single tray, capable of indefinite expansion, is preferable to drawers or frames divided into compartments. Each tray will hold with its guides 1,000 cards, and, when divided up into hundreds, any number can be found quite rapidly.

392. The guides are generally made of steel, enamelled and figured, or from vulcanized fibre, xylonite or aluminium, bearing the numbers stamped upon them. Every charging system of this kind should have a set of nine guides for each thousand

FIG. 134.—Guide for Card-charging Tray (Section 892).

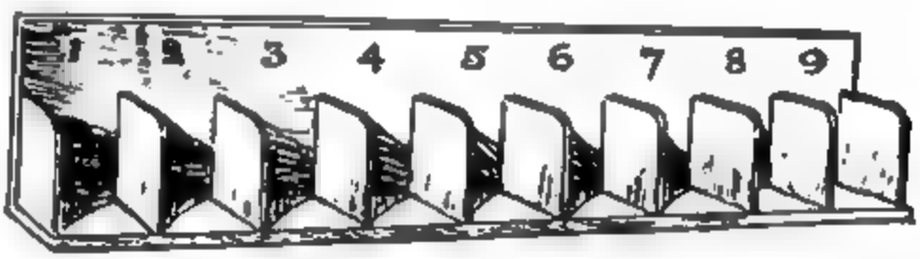


FIG. 135.—Card-sorting Tray (Section 893).

numbers, numbered simply 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, or having the hundreds running progressively throughout, 100, 200, 300, 400, etc. There should also be at least two complete sets of date guides, numbered from 1 to 31 inclusive, a set of alphabetical guides (for unclaimed borrowers' cards) from A to Z, and the miscellaneous guides for fines, marked 1d., 2d., 3d., 6d., etc., "Overdues," "Renewals," "Guarantors Notified," etc. All these are necessary for working card-charging as described in this Chapter.

393. It is advisable to provide a card-sorting tray in libraries with a large stock and issue, and this may be a simple rack divided into narrow compartments representing thousands, as shown in the illustration (Fig. 135). The compartments need no t

be more than an inch wide, as the cards can lie just as easily on their edges as flat, and with greater economy of space. Where fiction is kept in a separate series of trays, or the book-issue cards are classed, then, of course, some modifications will be required both in book-issue and sorting trays.

394. The indicator, as a library tool, is almost entirely an English appliance, and it is somewhat curious, considering their love for, and extensive use of, mechanical contrivances, that American librarians have never taken kindly to it. Various abortive experiments have been tried at Boston and elsewhere with indicating devices of several patterns, but the almost universal opinion of American librarians' is against indicators in any shape or form. Practically this holds good as regards colonial and foreign libraries generally, though one or two Canadian and Australasian libraries have adopted indicators of an English design. In England, on the contrary, the invention of these appliances has gone on unremittingly for thirty-eight years, and there must be at least twenty different varieties, each possessing a certain amount of merit or ingenuity.

395. A library indicator, as its name implies, is a device for indicating or registering information about books in such a way that it can be seen either by the staff alone, or by the public and staff both. The information usually conveyed to the public is some kind of indication of the presence or absence of books, and the methods of accomplishing this almost invariably take the form of displayed numbers, qualified in such a way as to indicate books *in* and *out*. Thus, small spaces on a screen may be numbered to represent books, and their presence in the library indicated by the space being blank, or their absence from the library shown by the space being occupied by a card or block. Or, colours may be used to indicate books in and out, or a change in the position of a block representing a book. No doubt the idea of the mechanical indicator was early evolved from the needs of the first public libraries. The first practical application of it was in 1863, when Mr. Charles Dyall, then Librarian at the Hulme Branch of the Manchester Public

Libraries, and since, Curator of the Walker Art Gallery, Liverpool, had one made for actual use by the public and the staff. This seems to be the very earliest English indicator, and Mr. Dyall is entitled to full credit as the pioneer inventor.

396. The ELLIOT INDICATOR, 1870, is very fully described in a pamphlet entitled "A Practical Explanation of the Safe and Rapid Method of Issuing Library Books, by J. Elliot, inventor of the system. Wolverhampton, 1870." This pamphlet gives diagrams and descriptions of the Elliot Indicator in substantially the same form in which it exists at the present day. The numbers are alongside the ticket shelves or spaces, and a

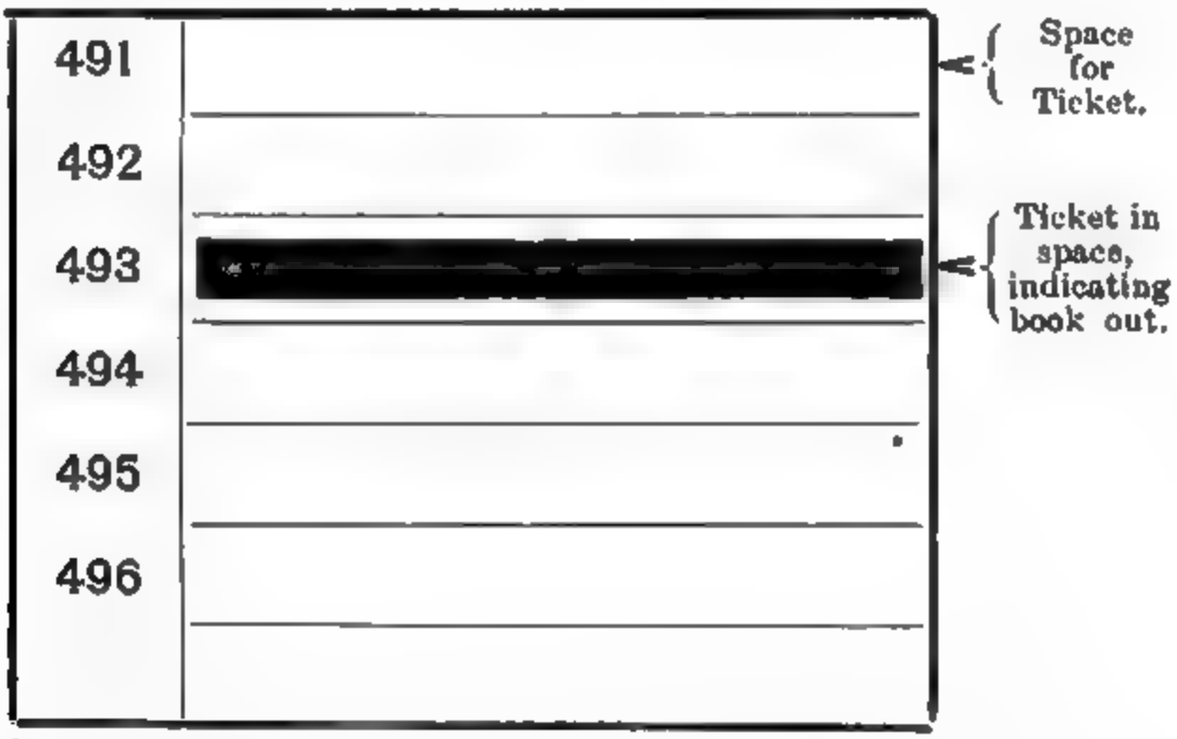


FIG. 136.—Diagram of Elliot Indicator (Section 396).

specially thick borrower's ticket is used with coloured ends to show books out and overdue. The indicator is a large frame, divided into columns by wide uprights carrying 100 numbers each, which correspond with the little shelves, formed of tin, dividing each column.

There are 100 shelves and numbers in every column, and the indicator is made in several sizes, according to the width of the borrower's card used. The public side is covered with glass. The method of working is simple. The borrower scans the indicator till he finds the space opposite the number he wants vacant. This indicates that the book he wants is in, and

he then hands his ticket to the assistant, stating the number of the book he requires. The assistant enters the book number and date of issue in the borrower's card, and inserts it in the indicator in the space against the number. The book is then fetched, and before issue it is registered on a specially ruled day-sheet, by means of a stroke, to record the day's circulation for statistical purposes. When the book is returned its number directs to the space on the indicator occupied by the borrower's card, which is withdrawn and returned to the owner, when all liability for fines is cleared. Overdues are detected by means of differently coloured ends to the borrowers' cards, or the periodical examination of the indicator. Good examples of this indicator in actual use are to be seen at Wolverhampton, Newcastle-on-Tyne, Eastbourne, and Paisley.

397. Cotgreave Indicator, 1877.—This indicator was invented by Mr. Alfred Cotgreave, when he was Librarian of the Wednesbury Public Library, in 1877. An account of its structure and working from one of the descriptive circulars issued in connexion with it will enable any one to gather a good idea of its appearance and use:—

"It consists of a wooden or iron frame, fitted with minute zinc shelves, generally 100 in a column. Upon each of these shelves is placed a small metal-bound ledger (3 inches × 1 inch), containing a number of leaves, ruled and headed for the number of borrower's ticket, and date of issue; also date of return or other items as may be required, numbered or lettered at each end, and arranged numerically in the frames. One part of it is also lettered for entries of date of purchase, title of book, etc. The metal case has turned-up ends, and the numbers appear on a ground coloured red at one end, and blue at the other, one colour showing books *out*, the other books *in*; other colours may be used if preferred. The *out* numbers can be covered altogether with a date slide if required. The change of colour is effected by simply reversing the ledger in the indicator frame. The public side of the indicator is protected by glass.

"The *modus operandi* is as follows: A borrower having chosen a book from the catalogue, consults the indicator, and finding the required number to be on *blue*, denoting *in*, asks for the book corresponding, at the same time tendering his library ticket. The assistant withdraws the indicator ledger, makes the necessary entries, inserts borrower's ticket, and reverses the ledger, which then shows the *red* colour, signifying *out*. He then hands out the book asked for. The borrower's ticket will remain in this number until he changes his book, when his ticket will, of

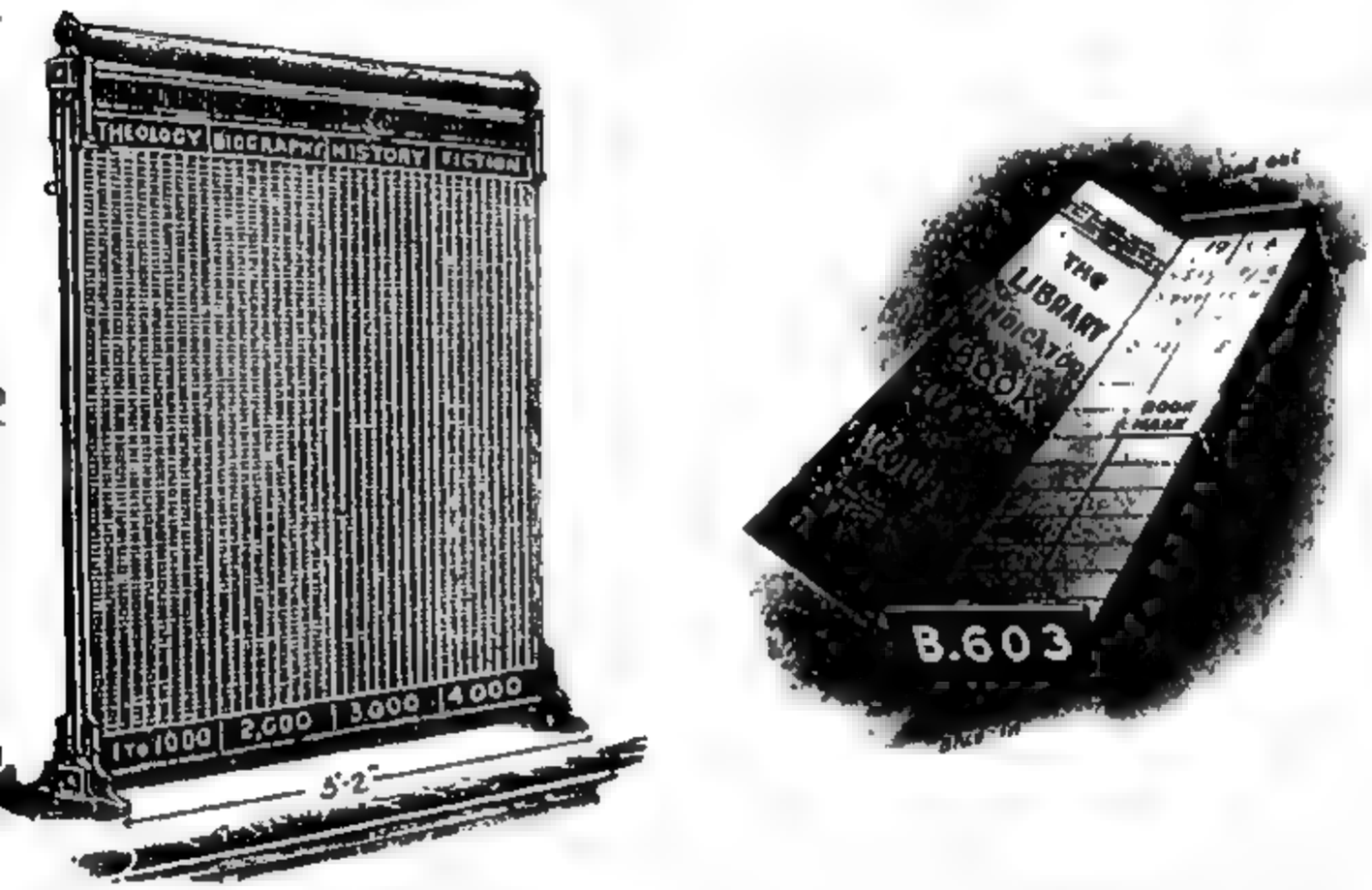


FIG. 137.—Cotgreave Indicator for 4,000 numbers and Ledger (Section 397).

course, be transferred to the next number required, and the returned number will be reversed again, showing by the *blue* colour that the book it represents is again *in*, and is immediately available to any other reader requiring it. The entries need not be made at the time of issue, but may stand over until a more convenient time.

"When a book is not required the ticket is returned to the borrower, and acts as a receipt, exonerating him from liabilities."

There are many ways of working this indicator in order to obtain certain records or notifications of overdues, and nearly

every library has some modification of its own. It is by far the most used indicator of all the varieties in existence, and has been largely adopted in English libraries.

It is not necessary to trace the history of the indicator in any further detail, because, with one exception, the forms described comprise all that have been introduced to any extent in English public libraries.

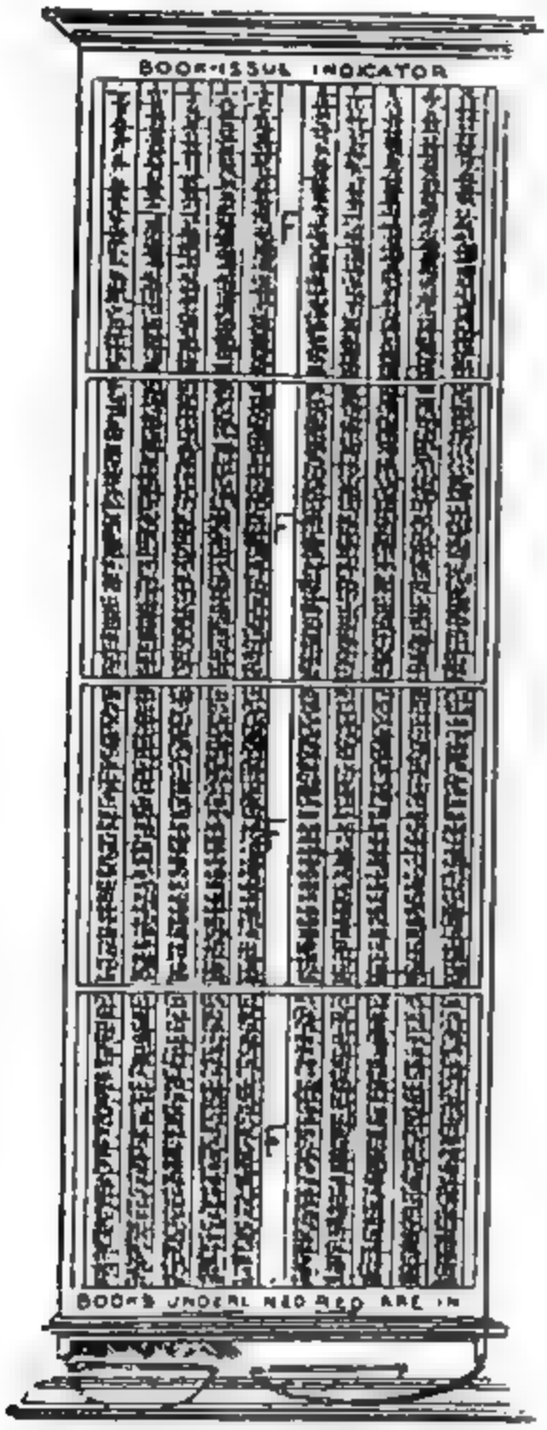


FIG. 138.—Chivers' Indicator (Section 398).

398. Another indicator which has been introduced to some extent was invented in 1894, and has several features which may be described here.

It consists of a series of wooden blocks, each of which is numbered with 250 numbers in gilt figures, and each number has a slot under it large enough to hold a book-card with red coloured or white ends, bearing the same number as the slot. These blocks can be built into columns of 1,000 with the numbers running consecutively, the whole being lodged in a glazed frame as shown in illustration (Fig. 138). This indicator differs from other varieties in having the numbers qualified by the red or white line of the card under the numbers to indicate books *in;* when the slot is blank, the book is *out.* "The withdrawal of the book-card is the method of indicating books out, and it is the union of this card with the borrower's card which forms the basis of the subsequent registration. When a book is issued the assistant withdraws the card from the recorder and places it in the reader's ticket, which is formed like a pocket, fetches the book, stamps it with the date of issue, and

so completes the transaction at the moment of service. Afterwards, the readers' pocket tickets containing the book-cards are assembled and arranged according to classes in numerical order. They are then posted, by book and reader numbers only, on to a daily issue sheet or register, and the date of issue is stamped on each book-card, if this has not already been done at the moment of service. The conjoined book- and reader-cards are then placed in a tray bearing the date of issue, in the order of classes and book numbers, or in one series of book numbers as may be needful." In other respects, this charging system resembles the card methods described in Section 388.

399. The only other indicator which is designed on an entirely different principle from any of the foregoing is the Adjustable Indicator proposed by the author in a paper read before the Library Association in 1895, and published in *The Library* for 1896, with illustrations. This was a practical proposal for an adjustable indicator in which its size should be limited by the number of books in actual *circulation*, and not by the number in *stock*. There is a very important point here, as a library with a stock of 30,000 volumes would require an indicator occupying about thirty-eight feet run of counter space. If it never had more than 4,000 volumes out at one time, these could be shown on the limited indicator above named within a space of not more than six or eight feet. This is a most important question, and it is inevitable that, in many libraries where conditions and feeling are opposed to progressive changes, this continual growth of indicator space will force library authorities into the serious consideration of less crowded methods.

400. On the principle of limiting the indicator to one particular class of literature, several varieties have been introduced recently, at Fulham, Wimbledon, Glasgow and Lewisham. So many libraries now use indicators for Fiction only, that there is some advantage in having special appliances for the purpose. The Glasgow indicator consists of a series of detached columns with adjustable number-blocks representing the books, arranged

so that insertions can be made at any point. The Lewisham or Graham indicator is an alphabetical one, and consists of an ordinary pigeon-holed frame, into which fit small numbered blocks of wood or metal bearing the names of authors and similar blocks with the numbers of their works. The chief advantage of this form is that it is self-contained, and requires no key to enable borrowers to ascertain what are the titles of books indicated *in*. A simple reference to the author's name in the ordinary catalogue enables this to be done. An indicator on similar lines has been invented by Mr. Cotgreave, who applied the idea to a magazine indicator.

401. Indicators are occasionally used for recording and indicating the issue of the parts of periodicals, both in lending libraries and reading rooms The reading-room indicator simply

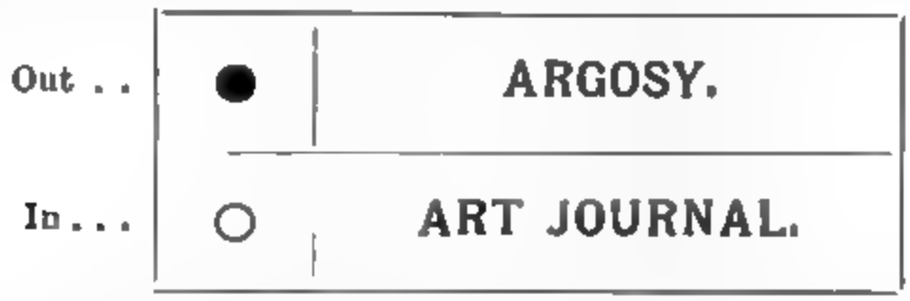


FIG. 139.—Diagram of Periodicals Indicator (Section 401).

shows what periodicals are in use or available, in cases where they are kept behind a barrier instead of being spread over tables or racks. There are examples of this indicator at the Public Libraries of St. Saviour's, Southwark, and Clerkenwell, Finsbury. The principle is simple. The titles of magazines are mounted upon narrow blocks of wood, arranged loosely in columns so as to be adjustable, within a glazed frame. The back of this frame is open to the staff only. Against the end of each title a hole is drilled to take a round peg which is coloured black at one end and white at the other. The white ends are shown when a magazine is *in*, and when it is issued the peg is reversed to show the black end. This indicates *out*.

402. As a substitute for indicators, and an approach to open access, many libraries provide a show-case for new books on the lending library counter, to enable readers to see the

additions as they are made. In some libraries these show-cases are not glazed on the public side, so that the readers have the additional privilege of examining the new books as well as merely seeing them. Certain libraries, like Birkenhead and St. George-in-the-East, Stepney, have whole departments of books arranged behind wire or glass within seeing distance of the readers, and they have the option of choice by bindings and titles, which if not much better, is as good as choosing from meagre catalogue entries, and at any rate gives the semblance of freedom and closer touch with the books.

403. Reference List of Authorities:—

Brown (J. D.) Charging systems. *In his* "Library appliances," p. 20.
—— History and description of library charging systems. L. W., v. 1, p. 8 *et seq.*
Browne (N. E.) Another charging system. L. J., 1895, p. 168.
Harris (W. J.) Indicators *v.* card charging. L. W., v. 7, p. 209.
Pennock (B. W.) The Browne charging system. L. J., 1896, p. 294.
Plummer (M. W.) Loan systems. U. S. Educ. Rept., 1892-1893, v. 1, p. 898.

CHAPTER XXV.

BOOK DISTRIBUTION.

404. Branch Libraries.—Every large town extending over a wide area must sooner or later face the question of establishing branch libraries, not only as a convenience to the public, but as a relief to the central library. No rule can be laid down as to the distance which any reader should be from the nearest branch or other library. It is one thing to make a symmetrical plan on paper, showing a central library with a ring of branches situated at regular distances, and so placed as to bring every reader within one, half or quarter of a mile of the nearest library, but it is quite a different matter realizing this ideal. Topographical difficulties crop up; the matter of density of population has to be considered; and, to crown all, sites or suitable premises cannot always be obtained at, or near, the places selected as the ideal spots. For these reasons, nothing in the way of regular spacing can be aimed at in the provision of branch libraries.

405. A branch library differs from a delivery station in being a miniature central library, carrying its own stock of books, and having its own reading-room accommodation and magazines. A delivery station need not necessarily have a stock of books, beyond those sent in response to applications, and it would have no reading room whatsoever. Branches and deliveries are often confused, no doubt because both provide for book distribution, but beyond this common feature all resemblance ceases. The question of the amount and kind of accommodation which it is desirable to provide depends entirely upon funds, conditions and requirements. For most situations

in which branches are necessary, such as the suburbs of large towns, the minimum provision should include a lending department, general reading room for periodicals, and a small reference department, which need not, however, occupy a separate room. All kinds of extra features can be added to this, if necessary, but these will depend upon funds. Some of the branches at Manchester, Birmingham, Liverpool, Hornsey, Croydon, Edinburgh, Bristol, Islington, Lambeth and Fulham are models of what such establishments should be.

406. It is impossible to lay down any rules for guidance as regards the financing of branches, beyond the general recommendation to keep a separate account of all moneys expended upon each one. Receipts like fines should also be separately accounted for, and the central library should receive a daily or weekly statement of all cash intromissions, issues, occurrences, etc. Such statements can either be rendered upon specially ruled sheets or post-cards, or kept in books according to some such form as shown in Fig. 140. An elaborate system of ruled cards for branch library returns is in force at Croydon Public Libraries. All forms, books, etc., at the branch should correspond with those of the central library, and everything affecting administration stated throughout this book applies, though in a modified degree, to branch work.

407. In the selection of books for branches the same principles should be applied as previously advocated, namely, the endeavour to get a high average of quality and utility in the literature added, and the determination to discard useless books when the time comes. But an effort should be made to vary the contents of branch libraries so as to obtain as catholic and representative a stock as possible. With Fiction, of course, this is not so easy, especially in the case of popular novels by well-known writers, but in other classes this can be done frequently. For instance, if the north branch has So-and-So's *Chemistry*, there is no reason at all why, all things being equal, the south branch should not have Someotherbody's *Chemistry* and the east branch Someoneelse's. Of course it is assumed that these

are all text-books of fairly equal merit. As borrowers' tickets should be interchangeable all over the town and not limited to one particular library, this arrangement of different books on similar subjects widely enlarges the borrower's field of choice. If the central and branch libraries are all interconnected by means of the telephone, as they ought to be, a borrower at the

LIBERTON PUBLIC LIBRARIES.

NORTH BRANCH.—REPORT.

Date .....

	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	J	K	L	Total.
Lending Issues .												
Reference Issues.												

Receipts from Fines

„ „ Catalogues, etc.

Books asked for

Books wanted from Central

Supplies wanted

Callers and occurrences

Signed .....

FIG. 140.—Branch Library Return (Section 406).

north branch can ascertain if Someotherbody's *Chemistry* is there without going himself, and can easily arrange by waiting a day or shorter time to have the book delivered at the nearest branch. This is a great convenience in many cases, and places the entire resources of the library at the command of readers, no matter where they may live.

408. Delivery Stations.—At the very best a delivery

station in a town is but a make-shift substitute for a branch, and, from the borrowers' point of view, does not afford a very satisfactory or expeditious service. If books which are wanted are not *in* at the central library, considerable delay and trouble are caused. Borrowers are compelled to make out long lists of the books they desire to read, and as often as not these are all out at the central store. As delivery stations seldom carry a stock of books from which an alternative choice can be made, borrowers are driven to the task of making out new lists or taking anything the delivery attendant can get by telephone, if there is this kind of communication, which is not generally the case, however, as delivery stations are frequently housed in shops or schools and managed by any untrained person obtainable. Apart from all this, a day must elapse, as a rule, before any book wanted can be obtained, even if it is available, and for these reasons the establishment of book-delivery stations is not advisable save in remote and inaccessible parts of a large town, when every other method of giving a local service has been found impracticable.

409. Travelling Libraries.—Of much greater importance are travelling libraries, which can be made to serve every purpose of delivery stations, with the great additional advantage of furnishing, in part, the same alternative selection of books as a branch library affords. These libraries are much used in the United States, and take the form of boxes of books numbering from fifty upwards, which can be deposited at fixed points in towns and rural districts, where borrowers can attend and make a choice of reading matter. Boxes of books by this plan can be sent to the care of responsible persons in all parts of a town, and these persons can undertake the local delivery and collection of the books, either for a small fee or as voluntary sub-librarians. Various kinds of records are necessary to keep track of the boxes and their contents and where and to whom they travel. Very little of this kind of work has been done either in the United Kingdom or America, although the Americans are gradually developing systems of rural travelling libraries and

town "home" libraries. The travelling libraries of the States of New York and Wisconsin form a most interesting study, as also do the "home" libraries of the city of Boston. Matters are not ripe in Britain for a rapid development of this kind of work, although proposals for sending complete travelling libraries on a large scale throughout counties have been made by the author, and on a modified scale by other librarians. When the British Parliament think fit to extend the Public Libraries Acts to County Councils and remove the rate limitation, which is simply crippling development in every direction, the municipal and county library authorities will not only be able to deal adequately with outlying districts, but will be in a position to make door-to-door deliveries of books in towns by means of actual travelling libraries on wheels. In this way the people who are not at present touched by the public libraries will be brought into the fold. The day is no doubt at hand when the traditional idea of the function of a public library as a store from which literature is doled out to the people, *if they know what they want*, will be superseded by a very pronounced missionary spirit, and an endeavour to make known in every possible way the value of all kinds of books to all kinds of people.

410. **Subscription Departments or Book Clubs.**—In some of the older municipal libraries subscription departments or book clubs have been established, as a means of increasing the stock of a library, without much expense. Such departments exist at Bolton, Dewsbury, Dundee, Elgin, Leek, Tynemouth, Wednesbury and Workington. They are operated as follows: For a certain annual subscription any library reader or townsman may join this select library. From the subscriptions so received, supplemented in some places by occasional grants from the rate, new books are bought, generally in accordance with the wishes of a majority of members, but on this point practice varies. For one year these books are at the service of subscribers only, who borrow them in the usual way, for a fortnight or other periods according to circumstances. At the

end of the year each book is transferred to the public library, and becomes the property of the library authority for the use of all borrowers. Where the selection is made with discretion, this may seem an economical way of obtaining books for a public library, but there are several very serious objections. As thoroughly democratic institutions public libraries have no right to set up a privileged class in this way, especially as it must be quite evident that the subscriptions cannot pay all the cost of service, lighting, housing, etc. Thus a proportion of the cost of maintenance falls partly on the library funds, and it is doubtful if in the end there is much gain in receiving as a *quid pro quo* a heap of stale and, perhaps, not very judiciously selected books. Another objection is that public libraries have no right to compete with private and commercial subscription libraries, by invading their ground in this somewhat undignified way, for the sake of ministering to the few people who can afford the luxury of a select public library to themselves.

411. Another form of subscription is occasionally indulged in by public libraries. By paying a certain subscription to large commercial libraries, like Mudie's, they are entitled to borrow so many volumes at a time, and these are reissued to the borrowers in the ordinary way, the library being responsible for losses. In small libraries this is often an economical way of obtaining the temporary loan of copies of books which are much boomed, and in this way the people have immediate access to books which might otherwise never be bought, or only obtained in second-hand form long after their interest had faded. The only trouble about this arrangement is that it depends upon the mood of firms, like Mudie's, for its continuance. To what extent these large commercial libraries would endure a constant drain from a hundred or so municipal libraries remains to be seen, as also does the problem of how they would meet the demand when it attained large dimensions. At one time certain of the London commercial libraries absolutely refused to lend books to public libraries on any terms. Now they are more complaisant.

412. **Inter-Library Exchanges.**—This is a method of book

distribution which has not been tried to any extent among British municipal libraries, and some organization would be required to place it on a working basis. Briefly, the idea is to enable a public library which has not got a particular book, to borrow it from some library which has, assuming all the responsibility for its safety and due return, and making its own arrangement with its borrower for the cost of carriage. This kind of exchanging could be managed better in London than elsewhere, but it could be applied to any group of libraries, such as those of Lancashire, Wales, Yorkshire, Staffordshire, etc. Each exchanging library would require to possess a complete set of class lists and bulletins, or other catalogues, of all the other libraries, and when a demand was made for a book which was not in its possession the assistant could look through the catalogues of the other libraries till he found a copy, and it could then be written for, the borrower paying all resulting expenses. Of course, this arrangement would only apply to non-fictional works. There would be an undoubted advantage, too, if such a privilege could be obtained for public library borrowers from some of the older proprietary libraries with huge stocks of practically unused books which municipal libraries would not buy in the ordinary course. Arrangements whereby books from special scientific or other libraries could be borrowed for the use of local borrowers would also be an arrangement, could it be managed, which would benefit a greater number of students and other persons than at present. But, of course, there would be very serious difficulties in the way of inducing the owners of valuable special libraries to lend books for the use of strangers introduced by municipal library authorities. Meanwhile, because of these difficulties thousands upon thousands of valuable and useful books are lying idle and neglected in every part of the country; a waste of power which it is sad to contemplate.

413. Statistics.—This seems an appropriate place at which to notice the whole question of the compilation and recording of library statistics. It will be better to discuss the whole subject

at one place than to deal with each variety under different headings. For purposes of comparison, the published statistics of British municipal libraries are of very little value, owing to the differences which exist in the methods of compilation. In lending libraries, for example, some places allow fourteen days for reading books, and only fine overdues 1d. a week. Others allow only seven days, and charge 1d. a day for overdues. This makes a difference of very considerable moment. Some libraries count every separate part of a magazine or periodical which is issued, and also every item in a volume of pamphlets, though only one is asked for. Many libraries which are closed for half a day weekly adopt the extraordinary practice of counting such days only as half-days, with the result that they reduce the total number of days open in a year by twenty-six, and thereby add considerably to their daily averages. Thus, if two libraries issue 100,000 volumes each per annum, and one closes for a half-day weekly and the other does not, we get the result that the former, which counts itself as open on 274 days only, has a daily average of 361, while the other, open for 300 days, has a daily average of only 333. If this method of calculation means anything at all, it means that the libraries which close for half a day weekly reckon that they drop about 150 issues every closed afternoon, and thus practically acknowledge that they deprive their borrowers of a considerable number of opportunities for changing their books. The number of borrowers shown in some libraries is out of all proportion to the population. A district with 20,000 inhabitants returns its total number of borrowers as 12,000, instead of clearly showing that there are only 1,500 active borrowers on the register. This arises from the practice of numbering borrowers continuously and only counting off the lapsed tickets occasionally. The exact number of borrowers using a library within the year of report, or at the date of report, is the only circumstance of any interest worth recording. To note, year after year, the total registration of borrowers, in such a way as to convey to the careless or ignorant reader the impression that more than half

the population are users of the libraries may be very ingenious, but it is very misleading.

414. The classification of most public libraries varies so much that nothing of a definite character can be extracted from it. Certainly comparisons can never be fairly made while one librarian classes his periodicals as science, useful arts, etc., and another lumps his together as miscellaneous. Then some librarians carefully separate Juvenile from Fiction issues, with the idea of reducing their Fiction percentages. Indeed, the anomalies and divergencies are so great in every department of library statistics that it is impossible to reduce them to anything like a common basis. Luckily the day seems to have passed when librarians issued comparative tables of issues, etc., with the design of showing how much more work a certain library did in a year than any of the libraries with which it was compared. The fact of the matter is, nobody save the librarian-compiler himself cares a snuff about detailed statistics of this kind. All that the general public or committees require is the total operations in every department, and the state of the stock, etc. (*See* Section 51.)

415. The statistics most in use are those which show monthly and yearly the operations of a library with regard to stock and issues. Monthly and sometimes weekly returns are sent to the local newspapers in many places as a means of stimulating interest in the library, and quarterly, monthly or fortnightly statistics are generally prepared for the information of committees. The statistics prepared for publication in annual reports are generally far too elaborate. Tables showing the month by month and class by class issues and attendances of some petty branch library or delivery station are absolutely valueless to any one. Matter of this sort can be ascertained from the records without trouble if wanted for any particular purpose, but it is a waste of time and money to print information of this kind. Some library reports are nothing but a series of statistical tables which are left to explain themselves, with the result that nobody takes the trouble to look at them. The

information suggested in Section 51 as most worthy of being published will be found to meet every requirement. Points of interest in statistics should be brought out and explained in the narrative reports of committees or librarians.

416. Most of the methods of compiling statistics are incidentally noticed in the Sections devoted to charging systems. Here may be noted a method of permanently recording statistics of library work of all kinds. An issue record book should be kept in every public library, and in this should be entered each day's issues in both lending and reference departments. Separate books of record should be kept for juvenile rooms, branches, attendances in newsrooms, etc., but these need not be very elaborate, and if designed for issues may be modelled on the ruling given below for the Issue Record book :—

Month: September, 1900. Public Library. Lending Department Issues.

Date.	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	J	K	L	Total.	Daily Average.	Total since Opening.	Remarks.
1															
2															
3															
4															
5															

FIG. 141.—Issue Record Book—Left-hand Ruling (Section 416).

Month.	Reference Department Issues.														
Date.	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	J	K	L	Total.	Daily Average.	Total since Opening.	Remarks.
1															
2															
3															
4															
5															

FIG. 142.—Issue Record Book—Right-hand Ruling (Section 416).

This record book should have about thirty-five lines to the page, exclusive of the headings, to allow one line for each day and leave room for adding up the class columns, etc. The dates, 1 to 31, may be printed down each column, but this will mean leaving gaps for Sundays. It is better to write the dates in for each month, omitting Sundays, which should be entered on a separate page or pages. The issues of each year should be kept together in a series, and, if necessary, the same book can be made to record the issue of branches, juvenile departments, Sundays, by reserving the requisite number of leaves and writing the name of the department at the top of the page. In addition, a page or more, as required, should be reserved for the necessary summaries, which can be entered up to show the total issues month by month in cumulative form. If this is done regularly the figures for the annual or other reports are quite easily obtained. The stock book if kept entered, added and classified up to date will give similar information about books, and so complete information about the work of a library can be obtained from these two records with very little trouble.

REFERENCE LIST OF AUTHORITIES :—

417. Branch Libraries—

Barrett (Franklin T.) Branch libraries: administration and relations with central library. L. A. R., v. 6.
Bostwick (A. E.) Branch libraries. L. J., 1898, p. 14.
Branch library work. L. J., 1898, Conf. no., pp. 98, 101.
Cole (G. W.) Branches and deliveries. U. S. Educ. Rept., 1892-1893, v. 1, p. 709.
Sutton (C. W.) Branch libraries: their number and cost. L. A. R., v. 6, p. 67.
Wilson (R. E.) Functions of a branch library. P. L., 1901, p. 275.

418. Delivery Stations, Travelling Libraries, etc.—

Brown (J. D.) Village library problem. L., v. 6, p. 99.
Countryman (G. A.) Travelling libraries as a first step in developing libraries. L. J., v. 30, Conf. no., p. 56.
Hutchins (F. A.) Local supervision of travelling libraries. L. J., 1897, Conf. no., p. 17.
—— Travelling libraries, 1902. (A. L. A. Tract, No. 3.)
Savage (E. A.) Delivery stations and town travelling. L. A. R., v. 6, p. 119.
Stearns (L. E.) Travelling libraries. P. L., v. 10, p. 76.
Thomson (J.) Travelling libraries. L. J., 1896, Conf. no., p. 29.
Travelling libraries in New York (rules). L. J., 1892, p. 487.
Travelling libraries. (Symposium.) P. L., 1897, pp. 47, 54.

419. Home Libraries—

Cutler (M. S., Mrs. Fairchild.) Home libraries. L. J., 1896, p. 60.
Home libraries. By C. W. Birtwell and M. S. Cutler. L. J., 1894, Conf. no., pp. 9, 13.

420. Statistics—

Bostwick (A. E.) The Tyranny and deceitfulness of statistics. P. L., 1900, p. 190.
Minto (J.) Public library statistics. L. (N. S.), v. 2, p. 164.
Stewart (J. D.) A True fiction percentage. L. W., v. 6, p. 177.

421. Subscription Departments—

Briscoe (J. P.) Subscription libraries in connection with free public libraries. L. A. Trans., Oxford, 1878, p. 19.
Waite (J. K.) Subscription library in connection with a public library. L., v. 5, p. 40.

CHAPTER XXVI.

THE REFERENCE LIBRARY.

422. The chief defect in the planning of the reference department is generally a failure to differentiate between the needs of the student and the mere magazine reader. The same amount of accommodation which is allowed to the magazine reader—a seat at a long table with about twenty-four or eighteen inches of sitting space, and half of a two or three foot table in front—is, unfortunately, considered quite sufficient for the reference reader and student, with his note books, various works of reference and other apparatus. It seems to be entirely overlooked in some libraries that the reference reader requires not only isolation to a very considerable extent, like that provided in the British Museum, but plenty of space in which to spread out the books and papers which are his tools. No student or reader who makes extracts, or who has to wrestle with obstinate facts in history, science, art or philology, can do so if he is environed by other persons similarly or otherwise engaged, at very close quarters. Nothing is more disconcerting and uncomfortable to a working student or earnest reader than the unpleasant nearness of other people. A large share of the unpopularity of reference libraries in general, but British ones in particular, may be attributed to the crowding and discomforts which have to be faced, owing to the general failure to realize the paramount importance of the reference department, and to make it attractive as well as roomy and comfortable. For these reasons, the provision of small, self-contained and separate tables for reference readers, similar to those described in Section 158, is

desirable. These not only give plenty of space on the top, but also provide a definite amount of storage space for books, etc., under the tables themselves. The use of long general tables should be discontinued, and greater efforts made all round to improve the furniture and surroundings of the reference department, so as to make it a more serious and formidable rival of the lending department.

423. In planning the reference department care should be taken to place it in the quietest and lightest part of the building, away from the noise of streets and the traffic of newsroom and lending library readers. Provision should be made for an open shelf section, which ought to form an indispensable department of every modern public library. On the library plans given in p. 95. the reference department is intended for complete open access, save as regards any wall shelving devoted to rare and valuable books not suitable for indiscriminate handling by the general public. But whether entire or only partial open access is contemplated in the reference library, a liberal provision of books on open shelves should form part of the equipment of an up-to-date library.

424. The chief need in a majority of British municipal reference libraries is development along certain lines which will increase their usefulness and popularity.

Whether or not the average British reference library gets fair play by having a reasonable amount appropriated for its maintenance, it has always seemed that there is a strong tendency to use the department as a kind of dumping ground for books which are too old, too large, too expensive, or too useless for the more up-to-date lending library. The result is that, in a great number of cases, British reference libraries are little, incomplete museums of comparatively useless literature, which have been formed without plan or forethought; in some cases because committees have thought fit to accept everything which comes under the heading of "Donations". These libraries are not literary workshops as they ought to be, but feeble imitations, on a Liliputian scale, of the British Museum, in which

the tradition is faithfully maintained of collecting everything that comes along, in the hope that it may be valuable and on the off-chance that it may one day be consulted. Small municipal libraries all over the country are diligently cultivating this traditionary policy, forgetful of the fact that the British Museum and similar great institutions throughout the kingdom are doing this class of work most efficiently, because it is their principal business to do so. Why, then, should the smaller libraries continue the hopeless task of trying to rival the great State libraries, which are the proper collectors of the nation's literary produce, by purchasing or accepting useless sets of books which lumber up the shelves and, because of their cost and bulk, simply serve to keep modern up-to-date works out of the library?

It may be admitted that the average British reference library designed for popular use is not to be compared to the average library on similar lines in the United States either as regards equipment or facilities for study. To begin with, the selection of books in the smaller English libraries is unsystematically conducted and the stock is not collected on any definite plan of gradually building up strong sections in every department of knowledge, but mainly on the principle of adding books at haphazard, just as they strike the fancy of the librarian or some member of his committee. In this way a very heterogenous collection is formed, which generally looks more imposing in bulk than it is in value or utility. The importance of the reference library has not been fully realized in a very large number of British public libraries, and hence we have many collections of books which are mostly useless, because, as a rule, they form mere fragments of the literature of some department of knowledge. One reason for this seeming neglect of the reference library is to be found in the fact that in a large majority of cases English library authorities do not take the requisite trouble to educate their readers in the uses of a good reference department. At least 75 per cent. of our public libraries require readers to fill up application forms for even

the most ordinary works of reference, such as dictionaries, encyclopædias, directories, etc., and in many cases this means a preliminary search in catalogues, by no means perfect, and a further loss of time in writing out such particulars as to the age and occupation of the applicant, together with the author, title, pressmarks, etc., of the book, with the date, and a name and address.

425. In the United States a great deal of this unnecessary formality has been discarded in favour of the more rational system of admitting readers to select collections of the best and most necessary reference books, well classified to make selection easy and arranged in such a way as to enable the reader to consult and compare a number of books on his subject before making a choice. This is, of course, the old-established practice of libraries like the British Museum, which has been imitated in a variety of ways in a number of British public libraries, such as Cambridge, Aberdeen, Birmingham, Southport, Croydon, Darwen, Manchester and elsewhere, but it is very far from being so general in British rate-supported libraries as it is in the corresponding American municipal libraries. Undoubtedly, this combination of application form and imperfect catalogue is the main reason for the comparative neglect of the average British reference library, coupled with the fact that the selection of books to represent subjects is not all it might be. No busy man can afford the time to use reference libraries for business or other purposes to the extent he would because of these mechanical hindrances. The contrast between the two systems of open shelves and application forms cannot be more strongly illustrated than by the case of the man who uses the British Museum. If he wants to look up, say, a biographical fact, he simply walks into the reading room, makes for the shelves where the biographical works are shelved, looks up his subject, and in fifteen or ten minutes is out again in the open air, efficiently and well served, without disturbing any one or troubling a single official. In an ordinary open-access municipal library he can do this without first having to procure an

admission ticket. On the other hand, he may be driven to consult some work which is not shelved in the reading-room of the Museum, and there are plenty of important books not to be found there. He must first spend a considerable amount of time in the catalogue enclosure till he finds the required entry —and he must know the author's name in such a case. He then fills up an application form, and deposits it in a basket at the service desk, having previously secured a numbered seat and written its number on his application form; and then he sits down and—waits. This waiting period may vary from thirty to seventy-five minutes. Never, under any circumstances, are readers served within a shorter time than half an hour, while frequently a longer period elapses.

426. Within due limits open access should form a department of every English municipal library, and no doubt the time is coming when it will be more general than it is at present. This kind of unrestricted access to useful books, especially those on technical subjects and books in dictionary form, is not only of immense service to readers, but it teaches the ordinary business man, the workman and the school-boy how to apply the information stored up in books to the ordinary purposes of life. It enables libraries to become engines of utility in the hands of every one, instead of being mere browsing places for idlers or centres of recreation for pastime readers. Rare editions of notable books, bibliographical curiosities and so forth, which only attract a comparatively small number of students, are *not* the kind of books which should be placed on open shelves. The selection in the British Museum reading room is typical of the kind of open library meant, and undoubtedly this is the only kind of reference library which is the slightest use for general open-access purposes. It appears from various authorities that already nearly all British municipal libraries give facilities to readers in the way of providing open access to select collections of reference books, while others give access to the shelves of their reference libraries generally.

427. Almost as important, if not equally so, as the question

of permitting readers to handle books in order to choose those most suitable for their purpose, is the question of cataloguing. Very few municipal reference libraries are efficiently catalogued as a whole. Sometimes the catalogue is a bare author-list printed as a supplement to the lending library catalogue. Frequently it is an imperfect series of printed slips mounted up in guard-books and occasionally overhauled. In several cases there is no catalogue at all, either printed or manuscript. The recent great improvements in card and slip-book catalogues render the provision of complete up-to-date catalogues not only possible but imperative. Author catalogues alone are quite useless, as a reader very seldom wants a book by a certain author, although he very often asks for a work *on* that author. His demands almost invariably take the form of inquiries for something on a specific subject—the Horse, Transvaal, Gold-mining, Election Law, Date of a Battle, Tithes, Life of Baden-Powell, Arms of Norway, Words of a Poem, etc. The question of authorship rarely troubles him, and progressive librarians should endeavour to show that it need not, by providing full subject and classified catalogues. For one reader who asks for a book by a given author there are fifty who want information on a given subject, and librarians of all kinds should cater for the majority rather than for the one who practically knows his way about. By providing adequate classified catalogues with all necessary author and subject indexes a librarian meets the requirements of all classes of readers, be they students or general readers. Unfortunately this is not the view held everywhere, and the result is to be seen in lists of books which are mere inventories of stock, not properly compiled catalogues in any sense. A reference library catalogue to be of any use, especially when not worked in conjunction with a system of open access or exact classification, should be fully equipped on every side—author, subject, title and class—and to these may be added annotations of obscure books. The only way in which a small library can economically accomplish this, so as to be always up-to-date, is to compile a manuscript catalogue, in a form which will

enable additions to be made at any point and to any extent. A printed catalogue has the enormous disadvantages of being out of date the day after it is printed; very costly to produce; comparatively limited in circulation; and of little value outside its own library, unless it is a list of books possessing some unique bibliographical distinction. For all these reasons the catalogues of public reference libraries should be compiled in the manner most likely to aid a majority of readers, and should be provided in a form which readers could consult with ease, and also be capable of indefinite expansion. Without a good up-to-date catalogue no ordinary library can accomplish much.

428. There is another point which may be noted, and that is the absolute necessity of having intelligent assistants in public reference libraries to aid and direct readers or inquirers in every possible way. The limitation of the library rate is very often pleaded as an excuse for all kinds of shortcomings, and it will doubtless be urged in connexion with failures to provide capable reference library staffs. However that may be, the fact remains that there are plenty of municipal reference libraries at the present time, whose service is in the hands and at the mercy of the frivolous small boy or helpless girl. This kind of inefficient service naturally leads to misunderstandings and trouble and readers become discontented with the whole public library system and sceptical of the value of reference departments. To prevent this it is manifest that library authorities must employ educated assistants capable of handling the reference library for the public good. Nothing will improve the average English municipal reference library and make it more widely popular and useful to the public so much as development along lines which will lead to systematic formation on scientific lines: open access to a select portion of the library; and adequate subject cataloguing.

429. **Records.**—In libraries where application forms are used on which to issue reference books, a policy which is still in vogue in a very large number of British municipal libraries, the statistics of issues are obtained by simply counting each day's

slips, and posting the class totals into the issue record book. Where application forms are used, it is customary to supply blanks as shown in Fig. 143 on which to enter particulars of the book wanted. In some libraries these slips are placed on the shelves in the place of the books issued, and remain there till the books are replaced. To ascertain that no books are missing a senior assistant examines the shelves every morning, and

SHUTDOWN PUBLIC LIBRARY.

REFERENCE DEPARTMENT.

No Book must on any account be removed from this room, or transferred to other readers.

Book No.	Author and Title of Book.	Initial of Assistant.

Name of Applicant .....

Address .....

Date .....

FIG. 143.—Reference Library Application Form (Section 429).

notes any slips still remaining which represent books issued on the previous day. To facilitate this operation a differently coloured slip is used on alternate days—white to-day, blue to-morrow—so that on a white day the presence of a blue slip will instantly draw attention to a misplacement or a missing book. In other libraries the slips are filed near the point of issue, and remain there as a check against the

shelves and the readers till the books are returned. Some libraries return the slips to the borrowers as a receipt, and compile their statistics from the books; others retain the slips and make up their statistics from them. Some libraries also insert an issue label in the inside front of each book, which is stamped every time the book is issued, and thus a record is made of a book's popularity or otherwise, which should prove very handy when discarding has to be considered.

430. It may be stated quite confidently that application forms are no protection against thefts of books. Readers have simply to give a false name and address, and walk off with any book they please. It is a curious commentary upon the alleged safety of barriers, application forms, and other hindrances to library work, that some of the greatest cases of theft from libraries ever known have been perpetrated in connexion with barrier libraries using application forms. In open-access reference libraries it is better to ask readers to return their books to the assistant in charge rather than replace them personally. Apart from the check which this plan affords it enables a record to be kept of each day's issues even in open-access libraries. The consultations can be entered up in a rough-ruled and classified book kept for the purpose, and the assistant can replace the books at once.

431. Reference List of Authorities:—

Foster (J. E.) An open reference library at Cambridge. L. C., v. 5, p. 71.
Reference work in libraries. (Symposium.) L. J., 1891, p. 297.
Savage (E. A.) The Municipal library's most expensive and least useful department. L. A. R., v. 7, p. 429.
Taylor (L. A.) The Reference library. L. A. R., v. 6, p. 532.
Wood (B.) Open reference shelves. L., v. 4, p. 105.
——— Relative functions of the reference and lending libraries. L. A. R., v. 6, p. 29.
Woodruff (E. B.) Reference work. L. J., 1897, Conf. no., p. 65.
Wright (M. R.) The Public reference library and secondary and higher education. L. A. R., v. 6, p. 433.
Foster (W. E.) Assistance to readers. U. S. Educ. Rept., 1892-1893, v. 1, p. 982.
——— The Information desk. L. J., 1894, p. 368.

CHAPTER XXVII.

READING-ROOM METHODS AND SUBSIDIARY DEPARTMENTS.

432. Newsrooms.—The chief difference which exists in the composition of British and American libraries is the frequent absence in the latter of general reading rooms in which the principal newspapers are displayed for public use. The newsroom has never been generally recognized in the United States as a necessary department of a public library, and, save in a few exceptional cases, these rooms are not to be found in the average American public library. The nearest approach to the British newsroom in America is the large magazine reading room, in which all kinds of weekly and monthly periodicals are displayed. This is substantially the same as a newsroom, but without the current numbers of daily newspapers. There are reasons why the Americans do not encourage newsrooms, and one is the enormous number of newspapers which exist in every large town. The display of a representative selection of newspapers and the cost of maintaining the department would occupy a very large space, and the funds would be spent to a considerable extent in providing one of the least healthy forms of literature. But, perhaps, the real reason for the American indifference to the newsroom is the sensational and vulgar tone of a very considerable portion of the newspaper press. Comparatively few American newspapers are quite free from such undesirable and objectionable features as sensational and untrue comments on current events, vulgar personalities, exaggeration and misrepresentation in every form, objectionable and dangerous advertisements of all kinds, and a very low level of literary merit. The best fugitive work of American writers of any

importance is to be found in the magazines and literary weeklies, which offer a very marked contrast in every respect, save as regards savoury advertisements, to the somewhat debased character of the majority of American daily newspapers. These are all strong reasons why newsrooms on the British plan are not quite desirable in American libraries, and they apply to a very considerable extent to the altered conditions of recent British journalism. Time was when the average British newspaper represented a high standard of accuracy, fairness and literary ability, but since the importation of many doubtful American catchpenny methods, the whole character of the press has been slowly degenerating. The London halfpenny journals, with their imitations of "snappy" American dodges for startling public attention into a state of high pressure, are the chief offenders, but their example is being followed all over the country. Indeed, the whole tendency of British journalism is such as to provide a very strong argument in favour of the limitation of newspapers, if not for their entire abolition.

433. The stock arguments in favour of newspapers are quite reasonable, and have a strong element of truth in them. They attract a class of reader who would not otherwise come to the library at all, and satisfy the literary aspirations of ratepayers, who might receive no return for their rates but for these newsrooms. The presence of literary, technical and commercial periodicals in the newsroom is also said to attract a large number of interested readers, and no doubt it does; but would this result not be achieved independently of the newspaper element? Newspaper readers are a class apart from all others. The habitual newspaper reader is a man who rarely reads anything else, and people of his sort do not exist in large numbers in public libraries. He belongs to that large body of men who take papers to read at breakfast, or in the train, or at home after work hours, and for him and his kind there is absolutely no kind of attraction in a public newsroom, often crowded far beyond its capacity. In addition to the comparatively small number of real newspaper readers, and those who come for the

weekly periodicals, the newsroom attracts quite a different class of persons in the form of loafers, sporting lads and all kinds of hopeless individuals, to whom the comparative comfort of the newsroom is a kind of snare and attraction. Mr. George Gissing, in one of his sketches, has drawn a somewhat exaggerated picture of such a newsroom haunter, who suffers from a kind of neurosis which drags him irresistibly to a public newsroom, there to indulge his morbid olfactory sense. These individuals form a considerable proportion of the frequenters of newsrooms in large towns, and if any means could be devised of getting rid of them without inconveniencing the genuine out-of-work in search of a situation, it would go far to solve the newsroom difficulty.

434. Many librarians feel that, in spite of its use as a refuge for illiterates, and for those who are out of employment, or those who, otherwise, may reap no advantage from their payment of the library rate, newsrooms cost rather more than is justified by their actual value. When the annual charges for periodicals, fittings, lighting, heating, oversight and proportion of loan are all added together, it will be found that a newsroom costs a very considerable amount, which could be applied to more permanent advantage in a reference room or lending library. The smaller the library the greater is the proportionate cost, and, though the time is not ripe for any drastic proposal, committees should seriously consider the question of strict limitation in public newsrooms, at any rate so far as daily newspapers are concerned.

435. Some time ago an epidemic of *blacking out* the betting news *à la Russe* broke out, as an experimental device to discourage and get quit of the sporting element, which in many Midland towns used to obstruct the greater part of the newsrooms. This is mentioned, not as an example to be followed, but as showing the shifts some library authorities are driven to in order to prevent abuses of newsrooms. As a matter of fact the practice of obliteration is not largely carried on, although the urgency of the betting nuisance is gradually leading to an

extension of the practice. Another and much more sensible suggestion for coping with the betting fraternity is to cease buying or displaying the evening papers, or procuring them so late as to make them useless for the purposes of the sporting element, while not in any way penalizing the working-man reader who comes after 7 P.M. As a further suggestion for limiting the cost and obstructions of most newsrooms in large towns, it is proposed (1) that only the morning penny daily papers be bought, for the benefit of the unemployed; (2) that the "Situations Vacant" columns only be displayed from 7 or 8 till 11 A.M.; (3) that the whole of them be removed at 11 o'clock, and their places occupied by maps, charts, pictures of current topics, or other similar broadside matter likely to interest and instruct.

436. In this way a newsroom, arranged with newspapers all round the walls could be greatly improved, and the character of its work changed, without in any way interfering with the use of the illustrated periodicals, technical journals and trade papers displayed on the central tables. By utilizing the wall space only for newspapers, good oversight is obtained and a certain amount of limitation is forced upon the authority by mechanical means. In arranging newspapers on the stands, care should be taken to separate the popular journals by a few less popular ones, so as to avoid continuous crowding at one or two points. The people who read newspapers should be distributed round the walls as thinly as possible, and this can only be effected by spreading the papers all round the available area. The illustration (Fig. 144) shows how the "Situations Vacant" columns are displayed early in the morning at the Islington Public Libraries.

437. In selecting newspapers for a newsroom the greatest care should be taken to represent all political parties, and at the same time to avoid the sensational element supplied by the cheap London newspapers. All local papers should be taken, if not for display at least for permanent preservation. The leading London dailies should be taken, and perhaps a representative

daily from Scotland and Ireland. Foreign newspapers are stale before they arrive, and need not be taken at all. Their places can be much more effectively occupied by representative German, French or Italian illustrated weeklies. American illustrated weeklies should also be taken in preference to the New York dailies, which are useless and out of date by the time they reach

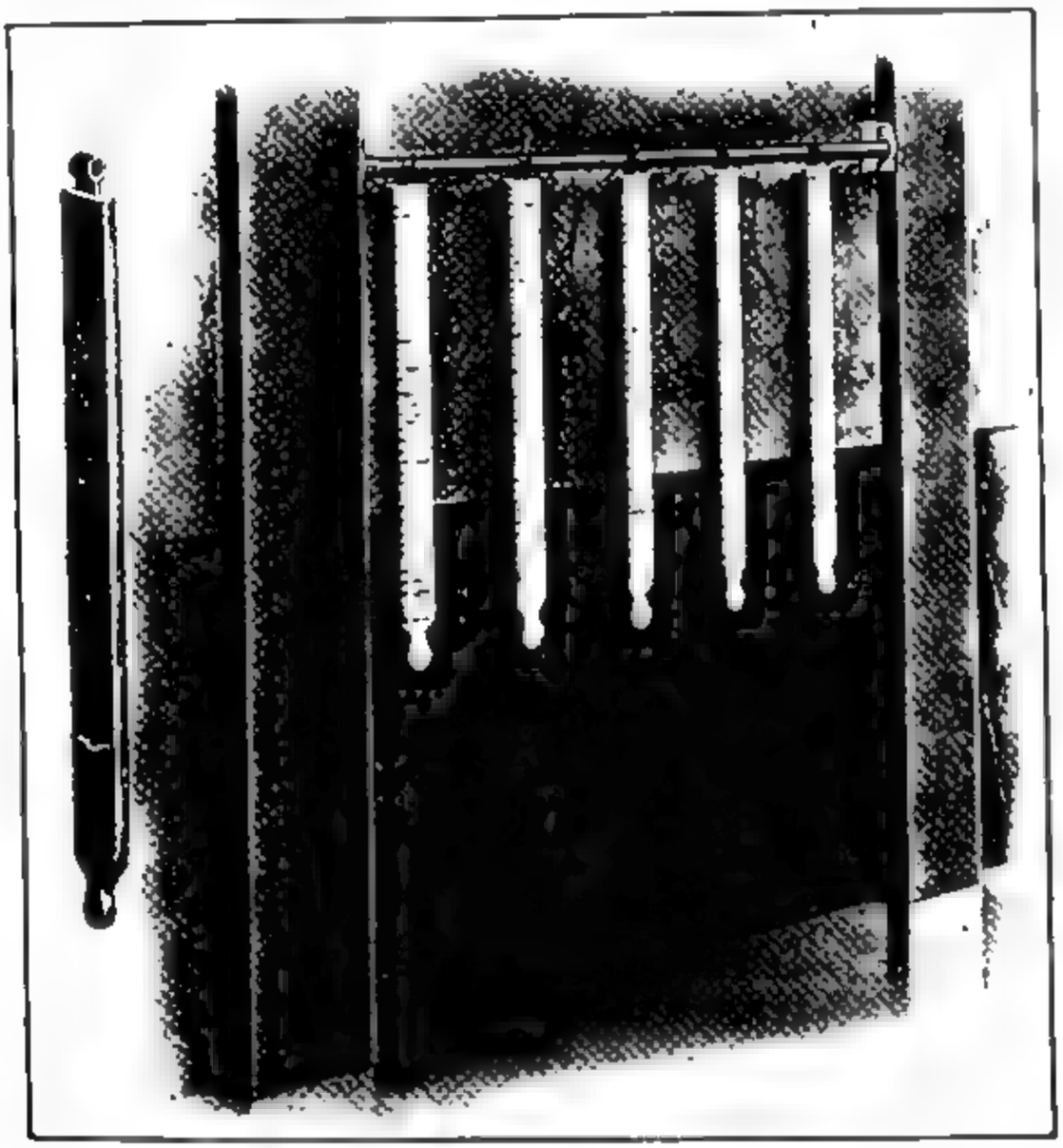


FIG. 144.—Newspaper Advertisement Slats.

this country. It should also be remembered that the London dailies give an epitome of the world's press opinions on any prominent current topic.

438. Newspapers are best displayed upon wall stands where possible, as more oversight can be obtained, and the economy over standard slopes, with papers on both sides, is undeniable. A newsroom fitted with newspaper stands at

right angles to the walls, and covering most of the floor space, presents a very crowded and obstructed appearance, and it is impossible for the staff to thoroughly overlook it without considerable trouble. Apart from this a newsroom gains much in appearance, spaciousness and airiness, by having the newspapers

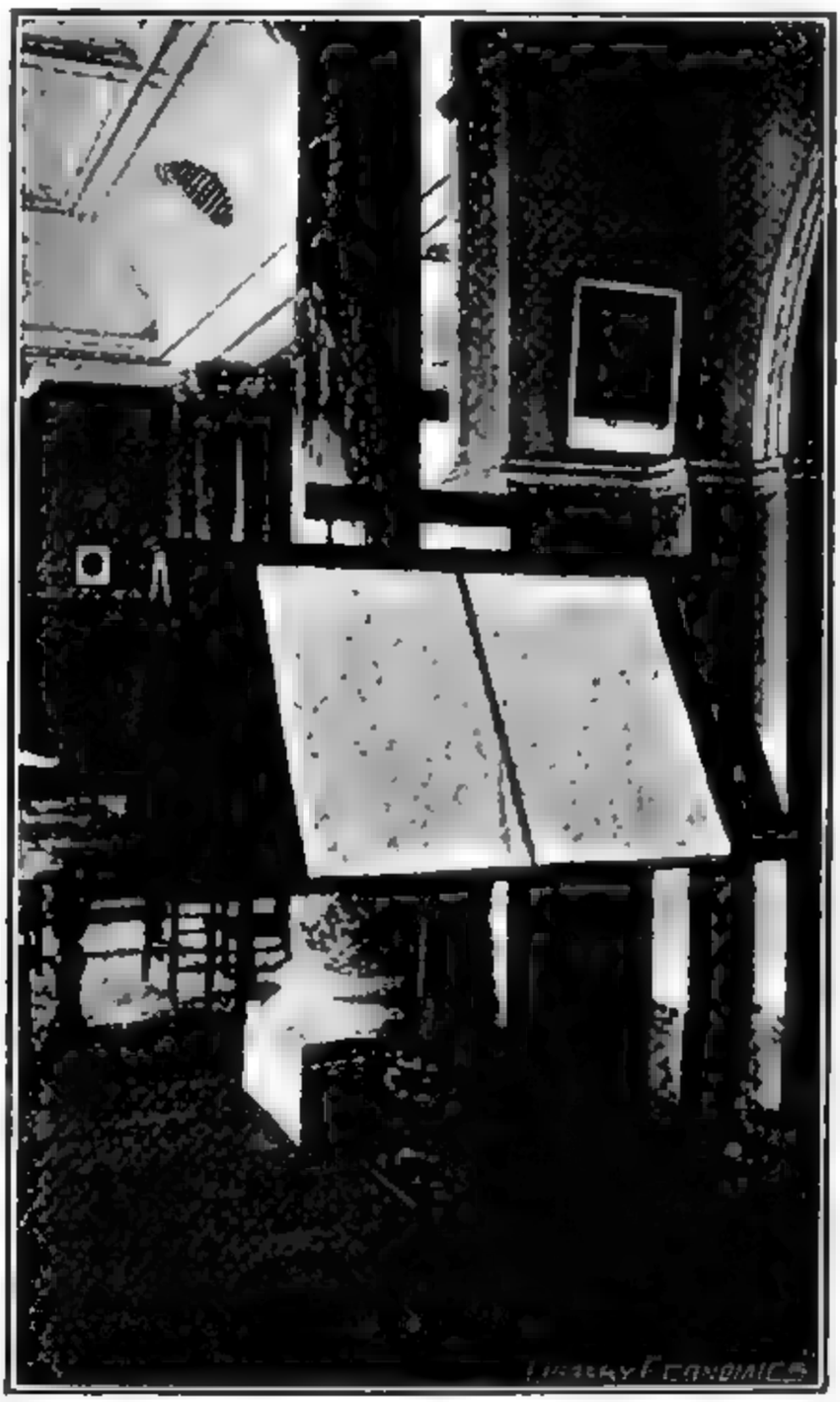


FIG. 145.—Double Newspaper Stand, Chelsea (Section 439).

relegated to the walls, well out of the way. The weekly journals can be kept very conveniently on tables, as shown in Sections 159-62, and it is sometimes found advantageous to secure them by means of cords or chains as described in Section 160.

439. Newspaper Stands.—The present conditions of print-

ing and production seem to make the broadside style of newspaper a necessity in all countries, and till some radical change in machinery is introduced which will permit newspapers in pamphlet or small quarto form to be rapidly produced, large stands for the display of newspapers will have to be provided. Standard newspaper slopes either at right angles to walls or

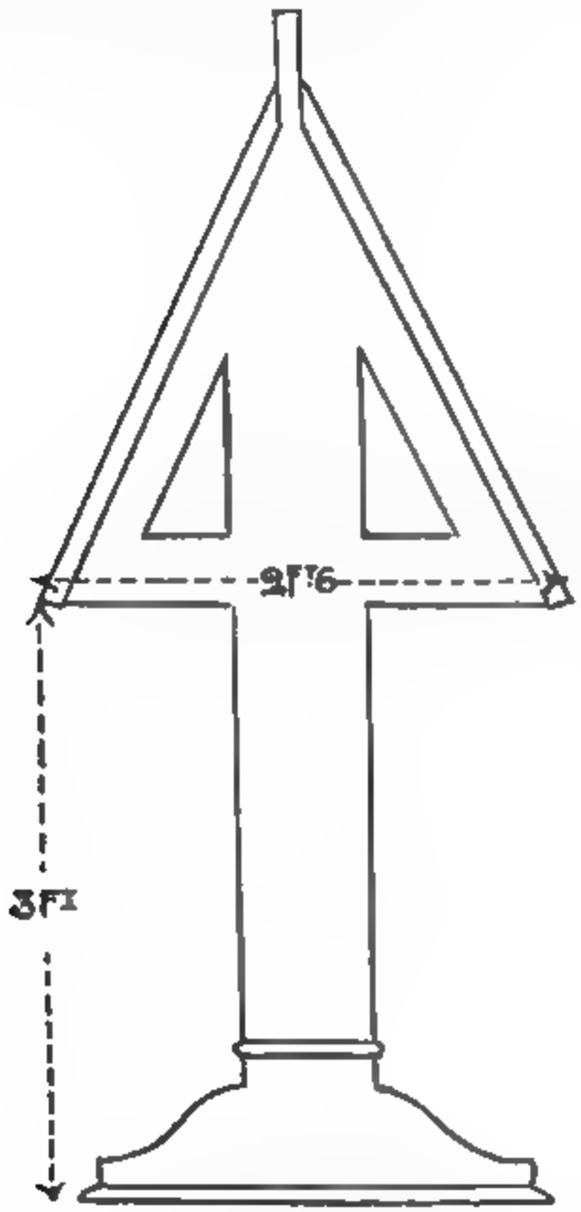


Fig. 146.—Double Newspaper Stand (Section 439).

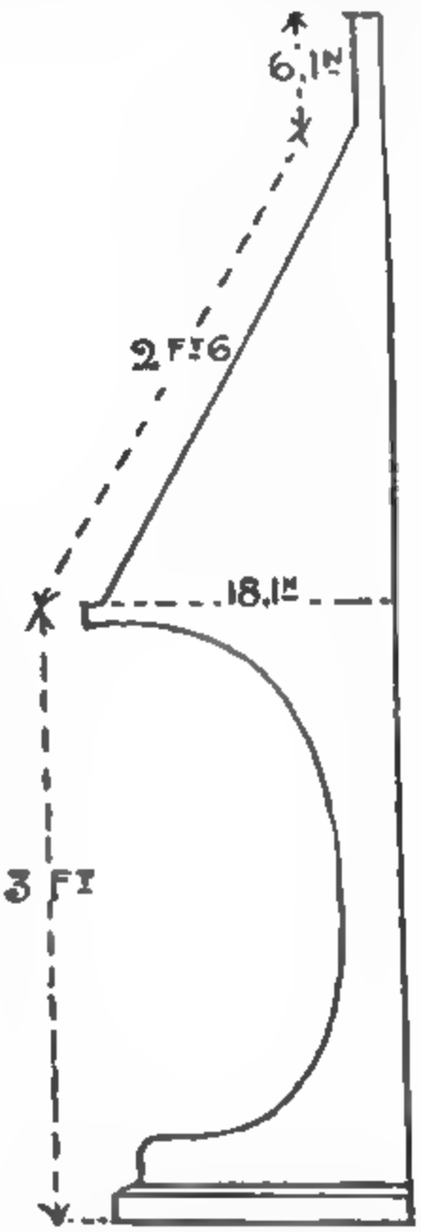


Fig. 147.—Wall Newspaper Stand (Section 440).

distributed over the floor of a newsroom are not recommended. In such positions they render oversight difficult and give the room a crowded appearance, apart from which their cost is much greater. It is necessary, however, in some cases, owing to considerations of light and convenience, to use such stands, and the form and dimensions indicated below will be found useful (Figs. 145 and 146).

440. Wall slopes are in every way preferable to standards. They leave the whole of the centre of the room free; the titles and whereabouts of newspapers are more easily noticed; and oversight is easy. Wall slopes should be made the same dimensions as standards, save, of course, that only one face will be necessary. The lower part of the slope should project

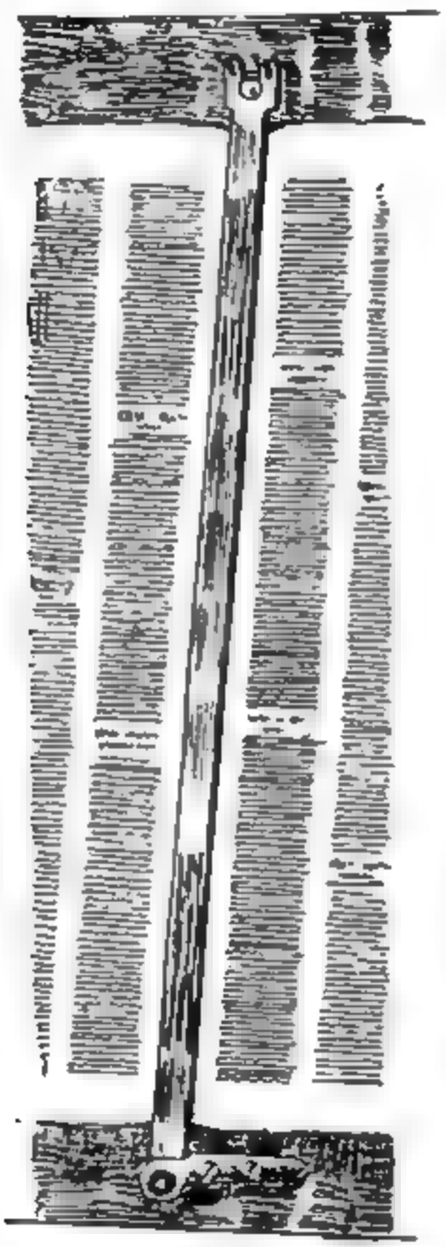


FIG. 148.—Simplex Newspaper Holder (Section 442).

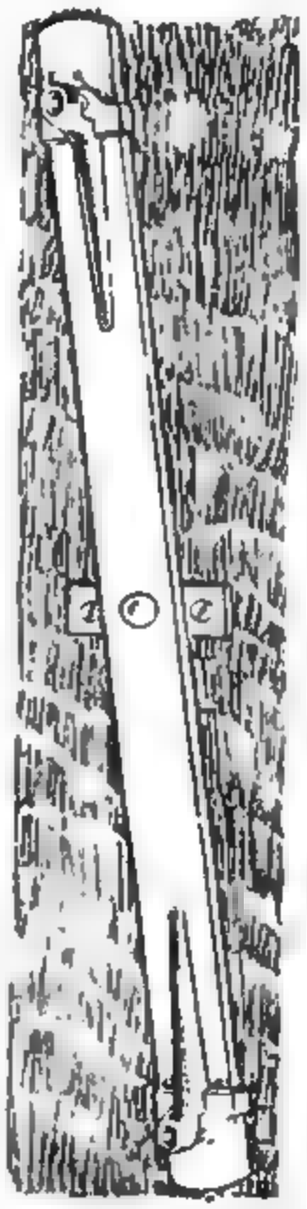


FIG. 149.—Revolving Newspaper Holder with Clips (Section 442).

eighteen inches to fifteen inches from the wall, so as to give a convenient angle for reading. Too great a slope is not desirable, as it tends to throw the top of the paper out of the reach and eye range of short people. A small beading or projection at the foot of the slope is frequently of use in preventing papers from drooping.

441. Newspaper Fittings.—TITLES for newspapers should

be fixed on the stands over the centre of the spaces occupied by the papers. A title-board about six inches high should be provided for the purpose. It can be made to slide along a projection on the top of the stands if grooved on its under side. On this the name-tablets of the newspapers should appear in bold letters, not less than two inches high. These tablets may be printed on paper or card, or may appear on enamelled or metal tablets. There is a very large variety of such name-tablets on the market, and choice will not be difficult. It is a useful practice

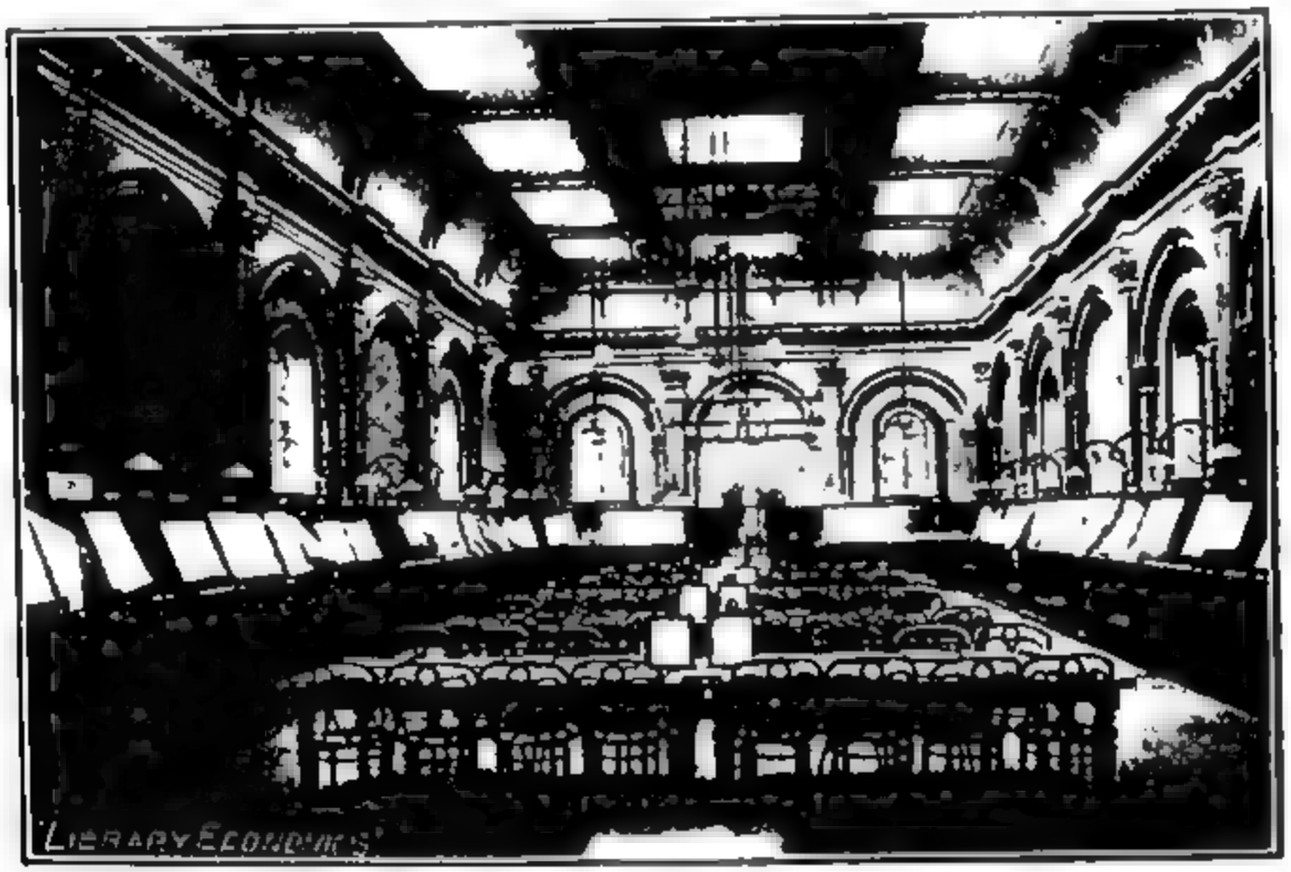


Fig. 150.—Fulham Central Reading Room, with Newspapers round Walls (Sections 436-438).

to attach to the fronts of the stands at intervals small bone, metal or card tablets intimating that papers must be surrendered to other readers after a certain period of warning has elapsed.

442. Holders.—There is a very large variety of rods, clips, and other means for holding newspapers on their stands, and the following illustrations will describe them better than words. A good form is used in the public libraries of Hammersmith, Wolverhampton, Leicester, Clerkenwell, Liverpool, etc., and consists of a pair of screw clips which can be readily adjusted

to any height of paper. These Simplex clips are illustrated on the revolving rod. Fig. 148 is called the "Simplex" newspaper rod, and is fastened at the bottom by means of a screw turned by a key. It is used in the public libraries of Wolverhampton, Croydon, Hull, West Ham, Glasgow, etc. Fig. 149 is a revolving holder which can be adjusted to different sizes of illustrated periodicals, by means of the sliding screw clips. It is intended for periodicals like the *Graphic*, *Sketch*, *Architect*, etc., which frequently have large folding plates running across two pages, and which cannot be conveniently examined when the journal is secured to a stand. A special form of separate wooden stand or easel is also made for such illustrated journals, which will be found useful when room is scarce on the other slopes.

443. Other fittings for newspaper slopes which are sometimes used are metal leaning bars or fences to keep readers from leaning on the papers and tearing them. These must be very strongly fastened at the foot of the slope in such a position as to project about four to six inches from the front. They should be held in strong brackets, as they have to support a very considerable weight. (*See* Fig. 151.)

The sticks and rods for holding single or several newspapers, such as are used for clubs and restaurants, are not suitable for public library use, unless under very exceptional circumstances.

444. **Magazine Rooms and Periodicals.**—The newsroom should be made the store for all the trade, technical and other weeklies which in any way convey *news* in their own particular fields; while the magazine room, if provided separately, should be reserved for the monthly and quarterly magazines, reviews and other miscellanies, which are not so much vehicles for the spread of current news. This is a rough division, but it seems a reasonable one for libraries where some distinction must be made between newsrooms and magazine rooms. In the selection of periodicals and magazines the same care should be taken as with newspapers to take only the best and most re-

presentative. Committees should make it an invariable rule never to take any sectarian paper, save as a donation, or in response to a widespread public demand. Church and chapel papers are often forced upon libraries by their respective par-

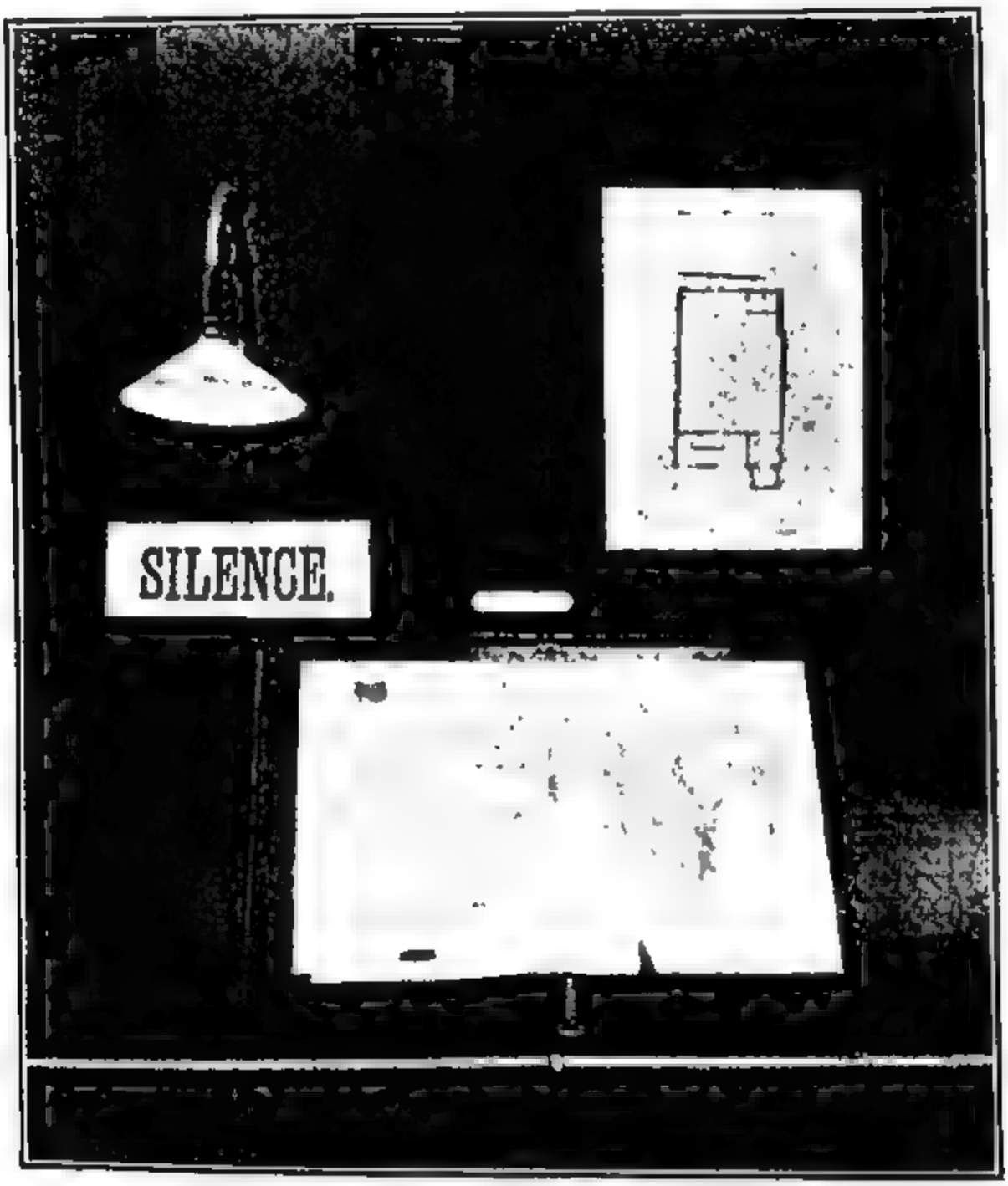


FIG. 151.—Wall Newspaper Stand with Leaning Rail, etc. (Section 443).

tisans out of sheer rivalry, and when this sort of thing once begins the library is sure to suffer by having to pay dearly for the gratification of mere sectarian feeling. As a matter of fact, no kind of sectarian or fad journals are ever read, save at first and for a short time, by the people who propose them. It is

sheer waste of money to subscribe for the papers of this, that, and the other sect, on the sentimental grounds of fair play all round, and meeting the views of large bodies of ratepayers in the same spirit as the wishes of trades or professions are met by providing technical and other journals. But there is this enormous difference. A technical journal appeals to all sects, while a sectarian journal does not, and, as a matter of fact, is seldom read by its adherents once the honour of the faith is vindicated by having it placed in the public library. For these reasons sectarian periodicals of all kinds should be avoided.

445. The arrangement of periodicals and magazines in their respective rooms calls for some notice. There are several ways in actual use which all prove satisfactory, and which are, nevertheless, very different in application. The most common plan of displaying periodicals is to spread them loose all over the tables in strong covers lettered with the titles, and to try and maintain a rough alphabetical order. Another method is to place the periodicals in their covers in racks like those described in Sections 159-161. The readers are expected to take what periodical they want from these racks, read it at the tables and return it to its place in the rack. As a matter of fact, they either do not return them accurately or else leave them lying on the tables. But in any case this method is preferable to the plan of spreading them over the tables, as it acts in a measure as an indicator to the periodicals in use. A third method is to keep the whole of the periodicals off the tables or racks, and to issue them from a counter or rack which is superintended by an assistant. This can be done in a number of ways, but preferably by means of an indicator such as is described in Section 401. The last plan is one which has the advantage of providing each periodical with a fixed place where it can always be found, though it entails the provision of a separate chair and table space for every magazine, and so requires a much greater amount of space than any of the other methods.

446. With tables provided with racks in the manners shown

in Section 161 the periodicals can be arranged alphabetically or classified by kind, and secured to the rack or table by means of stout cords or chains covered with leather to prevent noise. If double-sided tables are provided, with divisions as described above, much of the objections to this kind of arrangement is removed. Double-sided tables, especially if narrow, are not comfortable to sit at, either on account of the knees, breath or manners of your *vis-à-vis*, but when divided by means of a central partition, much of this objection is removed. But for

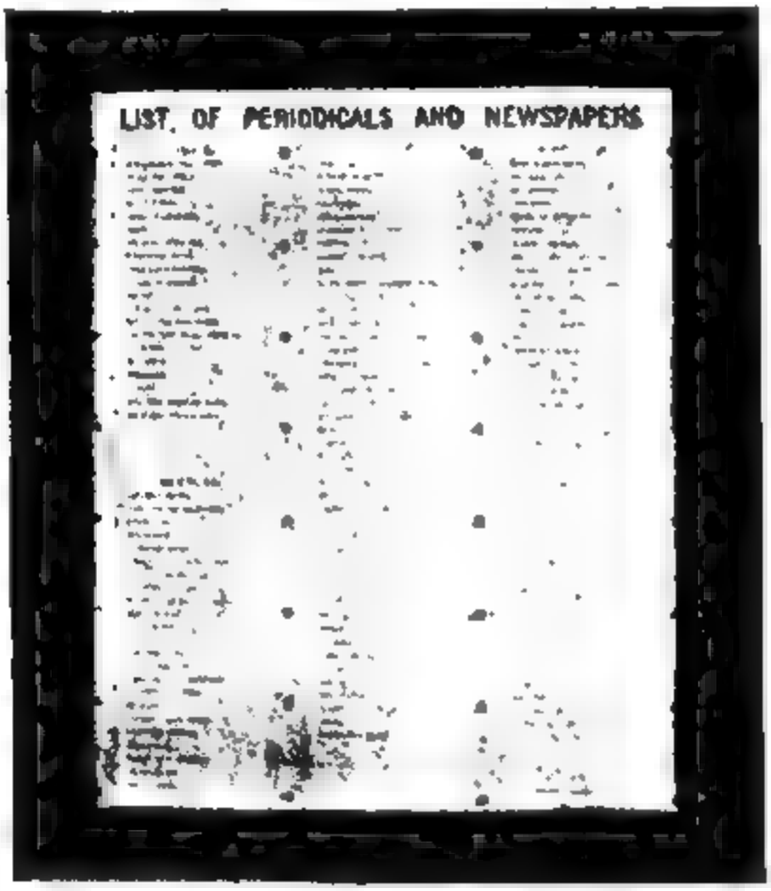


FIG. 152.—Adjustable Periodicals List (Section 447).

the question of providing space for every separate periodical, it has been found, after trial of most of the other methods, that the fixed plan, plus some convenient means of inserting a new periodical at any point, is on the whole the most satisfactory all round. It is a decided advantage for a reader to be able to go straight to the place where the magazine he wants is fixed, and to find it always there when directed to it from any form of indicator or periodicals list. If the less popular or valuable periodicals were placed in a rack similar to

that shown in Section 162, Fig. 45, the space required for displaying the better periodicals and magazines would be considerably restricted in area, while there would be a gain in space as well. The plan of keeping all the periodicals together which deal with the same trade or subject is very advantageous.

447. In any plan of displaying periodicals on tables or racks a key to the order should be provided in the shape of an adjustable periodical list, which gives a complete list of every periodical or magazine contained in a room. This appliance is thus described, and its appearance shown above :—

"Every librarian must have experienced the nuisance and expense of having to frequently reprint the public list of periodicals supplied to the reading rooms, because of alterations, additions, or discontinuance of magazines. This magazine list holder is a perfect solution of the difficulty. By its means the name of every periodical taken by the library is clearly displayed on a printed movable slip in a glazed English oak frame. This frame has a movable back to which are attached xylonite strips which retain the printed titles of the magazines in place, enabling them to be arranged in any order and to be added to or taken from at pleasure. Thus, the name of a withdrawn or defunct periodical can be easily removed and that of a new one added."

448. The checking of periodicals and newspapers as received, and every morning as they lie on the tables, should be done by means of special records or checks. A very effective form of check card for checking the numbers of magazines or periodicals as received from the newsagent is shown in Figs. 153-55. This shows overdues at once, and enables a complete check to be kept on the delivery of periodicals. One kind of ruling suffices for every kind of periodical, daily, weekly, monthly or quarterly, and the cards are ruled as in the figures below with heading and fifty-two lines to the page. If necessary both sides can be ruled, and so one card can be made to last for a long time.

449. In the cards for monthly periodicals the names of the

Cornhill Magazine. *Annual Cost*, 9s.

Vendor, Jones & Co. *Due about* 28th. *Location*, Rack 30.

1901.		1902.	1903.	1904.	1905.	1906.
No.	Rec.					
Jan.	Dc. 28					
Feb.	Jn. 29					
Mar.	Mar. 1					
Apl.						
May						

The ruling continues for 52 lines.

FIG. 153.—Periodicals Check Card, Blue (9¾" × 6"), Showing Arrangement for Monthlies (Section 448).

1901.	1902.							
Jun. 1	Jun. 2							
„ 8	„ 9							
„ 15	„ 16							
„ 22	„ 23							
„ 29	„ 30							

FIG. 154.—White Card, Showing Arrangement for Weeklies (Section 448).

<		1901.	>	<	1902.	>
Jun. 1						
„ 3						
„ 4						
„ 5						
„ 6						
„ 7						
„ 8						
„ 10						
„ 11						

FIG. 155.—Buff Card, Showing Arrangement for Dailies (Section 448).

months should be written in advance, the dates of receipt being added against each month as the magazine is received. In the case of weeklies and dailies the numbers are to be entered number by number as received. An overdue can be noticed at once by any one going over the cards, by simply noting that a weekly due on Friday, the day previous to the actual date of publication, has not been entered. These cards should be examined for overdues daily in the case of dailies, and every Friday evening or Saturday morning in the case of weeklies and monthlies. If each kind is stored in a suitable box or portfolio the checking and marking-off can be done with great rapidity. These cards can also be used for annuals, society publications etc. In the latter case the year can be written at the top of the column, and the publications received for the subscription can be written in the column lengthways. If nothing has been received by the middle of any year, the society can be notified. But the irregularity of society and other subscription publications is a feature which requires a good deal of watching, and a card check of some kind is essential.

450. The morning check of periodicals as they lie on the tables should be done by an assistant armed with a list, written or printed on a card, by means of which he or she can follow the order of all the periodicals as they are arranged on stands, tables or racks. Anything missing should be noted on a separate slip of paper, and entered in the work book. The initials of the checker should also be written in the work book in the space provided. (*See* Section 87.) The librarian should receive the check slip if anything is missing. In similar fashion the assistant who examines the periodical check cards for overdues should notify the librarian of any numbers not promptly received.

451. The filing of magazines may be done as recommended in Section 319. It is not advisable to reserve everything, either for binding or preservation, for a time, and it is wise to make up a list of periodicals and newspapers which it is intended to keep, file them, and give all the remainder away to poorhouses, asylums or similar institutions. Sometimes they can be sold

at half-price as withdrawn from the tables, but in most cases all matter of this kind has to be sold as waste-paper.

452. The only satisfactory method of counting the attendances in general reading rooms is by means of a recording turnstile. All other methods of occasional counts and the striking of averages are unreliable. The craze for statistics is so strong, unfortunately, that librarians are driven to satisfy their committees as to the use made of reading rooms, and in the absence of a turnstile the best thing to do is to take whole-day counts as follows: on a Monday in January; Tuesday in February; Wednesday in March, etc.; divide the total by twelve, and multiply the average thus obtained by the number of days open. Every individual who enters or re-enters must be counted. This gives a fair approximation to the actual attendance, and is a better plan and more reasonable than counting the readers present in the rooms every hour or half-hour, adding the totals together, and reckoning the result as the day's attendance.

As an aid in keeping order in public newsrooms it is a good plan to frame a few copies of the 1898 "Act to provide for the Punishment of Offences in Libraries," and to hang them in conspicuous places, along with the admonitory notices regarding "Silence," etc. The official appearance of a framed Act of Parliament has a daunting effect upon a certain type of mind, and has been found to act as a check upon sporting and loafing individuals.

453. **Women's Rooms.**—Separate rooms for women are not necessary in most public libraries, and the question need not be mentioned at length. The sentimental idea that women are delicate creatures requiring seclusion in glass cases is resented no more strongly than by the ladies themselves, and the mere fact that they do use general reading rooms without complaint or hesitation in places where separate accommodation is not provided is quite enough to demonstrate that such rooms are not essential.

About eighty public libraries in Britain have provided

separate rooms for the use of women, but it is doubtful if such accommodation is really necessary. If there is plenty of room in the building there is no harm in making this extra provision, provided the room can be properly overlooked, but in cases where space is limited, it is a mistake to cramp the rest of the building for the sake of a somewhat sentimental idea. A few extra women of a fidgety or timid sort may be attracted to the library because of this exclusive accommodation, but the great majority of women prefer to use the ordinary departments of a public library on the same footing and conditions as men. If women can use the crowded spaces in front of restricted lending libraries, and can mix with men in open lending libraries, they can surely use the reference rooms without harm or inconvenience.

454. Children's Libraries.—There are decided advantages in providing separate reading rooms and libraries for children, not only to the library and its adult users, but to the children themselves. Many British municipal libraries have provided such accommodation with good results, and it is only want of means which prevents a number of other places from following their example. A children's library with no age limit, which has a good selection of books and magazines for reading on the premises, a large and varied stock of the best authors—excluding the goody-goody element—freely accessible, and the whole controlled by a sympathetic yet firm assistant or superintendent, will accomplish wonders in the direction of forming intelligent citizens and furthering the education of children. The special rules for such a library need not be very stringent, and the admission should be made as easy as possible. The guarantee or recommendation of a parent or school teacher should be accepted without hesitation (Section 366 (35)). If any advanced boys or girls require books which are in the adult libraries, they should be allowed to have them. Power to read and appreciate books should be the sole requirement for granting their use. Children's rooms should be comfortably furnished and well decorated with prints, maps, etc., but the users should be taught

that scrupulous cleanliness is a first condition of admission. It is often difficult to preserve order among the wealth of animal spirits generally assembled in a juvenile reading room, but a little tact and firmness to begin with will produce good results. In very busy libraries it is advisable to provide a separate entrance for the children's department. When a public library has provided an adequate children's room and reduced its age limit to a reasonable and liberal degree, it has done all that is necessary or desirable without trenching upon the work of the public schools or fostering this particular class of youthful citizen at the expense of his seniors who have to find the money.

455. With all respect for the admirable work in connexion with children's libraries and the cultivation of intimate relationships with the public schools, both in the United States and Britain, there is a very grave danger of this particular outlet for library enthusiasm becoming a damaging influence on the interests of the general work of public libraries. Already there are libraries in the United States and in England where everything is subordinated to the special cult of the child, and where the claims of adult readers are being brushed aside in the pursuit of what is largely, in many cases, a sentimental phantasy. In America there may be some excuse for the extraordinary lengths to which the children's library has been carried, especially as the means are forthcoming to a greater extent than in Britain; but there is no reason why English public libraries should add to the difficulties caused by their already straitened means, by undertaking work which every School Authority is perfectly competent and free to do for itself.

456. The provision of children's reading rooms and libraries in connexion with public library buildings is a legitimate outlet for library funds, but the presentation of collections of books to public schools and the cost of running courses of lectures on abstract subjects for school children are both matters which should be left severely alone. The School Authorities have plenty of money, in comparison with libraries, with which to equip proper school libraries, and in the case of London, Cardiff

and some other towns this has been done. The School Authorities and other educational bodies have also full power and means for providing everything in the way of oral instruction by lecture or otherwise. To many observers, it must appear as if the educational authorities in America and the United Kingdom had failed in their duty of providing elementary education, to warrant such interference on the part of librarians. With superior acuteness the American librarians have managed to secure both co-operation and financial assistance from the public school authorities, which is perhaps a sufficient reason for the epidemic at present raging in the United States; but in Britain the libraries are being crippled in their genuine work of catering for all classes, by adventuring upon experiments in connexion with school libraries and lectures and a disproportionate expenditure of energy in the cultivation of one department of work.

457. It is much the best course to allow young children to become acquainted with the attractions and uses of good books and the proper function of the public libraries as early as possible, and to this end they should be encouraged to use the municipal libraries, and not be discouraged and put off with petty school libraries, or deliveries of small boxes of books, sent to schools to be doled out by teachers as a reward for good behaviour. Let the children come to the libraries like other citizens, and learn to use and appreciate their own public institutions. This can often be done by conducting classes of children round the library, explaining the whole system, and giving them useful exercises in the use of the catalogue, classification, etc. There is more genuine education to be obtained in this way than in lectures on coal or sugar delivered by librarians or teachers. At any rate, it gives children the option of becoming intimately acquainted with public libraries if they wish, and is something more real and tangible than personally conducting them round a library in a condition of restriction. Let the very best possible relationships be cultivated with school teachers, and let librarians enjoy every advantage which mutal co-operation can give, but do not let the question of providing suitable reading for children

degenerate into sentimental old-maidish lines. There are plenty of philanthropic and educated men who believe that young children would be much more profitably and healthfully employed playing in the open air than sitting about in stuffy reading rooms, and with this view one can cordially agree.

458. Lectures.—Where space is not limited, and funds permit it is a good thing to provide a large spare room which can be used for occasional lectures, exhibitions or similar purposes, without disturbing or upsetting other departments of the library. It is not necessary to provide a lecture theatre with rising tiers of seats, because the kind of demonstration for which this class of accommodation is provided will seldom or never be employed in connexion with public library lectures. Suitable platform and lantern accommodation should, however, be provided, and it is well to have a separate switch at the platform or under the control of the lantern operator, so that the lights can be turned off and on at will. The usual signalling apparatus and reading lamp should also be provided, and for demonstrations of a scientific character, gas, water and electricity should be brought to the platform.

Doubts exist as to whether lectures can be given in connexion with public libraries if the cost has to come out of the library rate. If lectures are confined to exposition of the contents of the books in a library, there can be very little objection raised to them on any ground, financial or otherwise; but if they consist of magic-lantern accounts of tours in Palestine, America, China, etc., interspersed with occasional concerts and readings from the poets, any district auditor would be justified in surcharging expenditures from the rate for such purposes. It is no part of a public library's work to give courses of general lectures, free or otherwise, and certainly their cost should not come off the book fund of the library, which is, unfortunately, the only available source from which money can be obtained. Lectures are quite a subsidiary part of the work of a municipal library, and should never be undertaken until every other means of popularizing and exploiting the library have failed. The facts

that lectures are an essential part of classes, and that they are specifically mentioned in the Museums Act of 1891, which is stated to confer powers "in addition" to the Public Libraries Acts, seem to have been entirely overlooked. Surely, if library authorities have power to establish schools for science and art and give lectures in connection with museums, they are within their legal rights in paying the whole of the expenses of lecture courses.

If fees are received for the use of lecture halls, the money so provided might be used to pay for printing and other incidental expenses connected with lectures.

459. Exhibitions of fine art and technical books, or special books of any kind, can be undertaken by municipal libraries if a spare room is available. Such exhibitions have been given at St. Helens, Croydon, Chelsea, Aston Manor, etc., and have been successful in making the people practically acquainted with some of the rarer and more expensive books in the libraries. Where open access is allowed such exhibitions are not necessary save for very large, expensive and rare works. The ordinary technical and scientific books which form the bulk of such exhibitions would be seen in open-access libraries as a matter of course.

460. **Students' Rooms.**—This is another class of extra accommodation which is unnecessary if the reference department has been properly arranged and organized. It only establishes another privileged class, and makes further demands upon the staff for service and oversight. A reference library on the plan laid down in Fig. 12 and Section 117 will meet every possible requirement of students of all kinds.

461. **Public Lavatory Accommodation.**—This should not be provided by public library authorities at all, unless to a very limited extent for the use of reference library readers, or for social meetings in connexion with lecture rooms. It is the duty of the sanitary or public health authorities to provide this kind of public accommodation, and not library boards with painfully limited funds. Somewhere adjacent to the library building provision of this kind can be made by the local authority, and

it will be found a convenience to the public and a relief to the library funds.

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—— Newsroom arrangement. L. W., 1902, p. 256.
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James (H. P.) Reading rooms and periodicals. L. J., 1896, Conf. no., p. 49.
Supplying of current daily newspapers in public library reading rooms. (Symposium.) L. J., 1894, Conf. no., p. 42 *et seq.*
Wigan Public Library. Suggested blacking out of racing news. Summary of returns, 1905.
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463. Arrangement of Periodicals—

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464. Children's Libraries—

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Hassler (H. E.) Common sense and the story hour. L. J., v. 30, Conf. no., p. 76.
Hewins (C. M.) Books that children like. Int. Conf., 1897, p. 111.
—— Reading of the young. U. S. Educ. Rept., 1892-1893, v. 1, p. 944.
Jackson (A. H.) Report on library work with children [in America]. L. J., v. 31, Conf. no., p. 89.
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Olcott (F. J.) Rational library work with children and the preparation for it. L. J., v. 30, Conf. no., p. 71.
Plummer (M. W.) Work for children in free libraries. L. J., 1897, p. 679.
Quigley (M. C.) Telling stories to children. P. L., v. 10, p. 351.
Reading rooms for children. Reports from American libraries. P. L., 1897, p. 125.
Wood (B.) Juvenile libraries. L., v. 4, p. 111.

465. Libraries and Schools—

Adams (H. B.) Public libraries and popular education. Albany, Univ. of the State of New York, 1900.
Axon (W. E. A.) Libraries in relation to education. L., v. 5, p. 265.
Ballinger (J.) Public libraries and the schools. L., v. 9, p. 239.
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Carter (B.) School libraries. L. W., v. 8, p. 29.
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Riggs (J. F.) Why the school needs the library. P. L., v. 10, p. 507.
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Lectures. (Symposium.) L. W., 1899, pp. 121, 162.

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CHAPTER XXVIII.

MUSEUMS AND ART GALLERIES.

469. There are museums of all kinds in existence, some of them of world-wide importance, and they may be roughly classified into the following groups :—

General Museums.—These are collections of a miscellaneous kind, comprising art, science, archæological and other objects, and aiming more or less at universality. The British Museum was at one time a universal collection, but since it was divided into art, ethnological, natural history and industrial departments, it no longer forms a general collection under one roof. Soane's Museum in Lincoln's Inn Fields, London, is a general museum, and there are many others in the provinces.

National Museums.—Collections illustrative of the arts, manufactures, antiquities, literature and history of a nation. These range in extent from the great German, Hungarian and French museums, down to museums of national antiquities, like those of the Societies of Antiquaries of England, Scotland and Ireland.

Science Museums.—Comprising Anatomical, Botanical, Geological, Chemical, Physical, General Natural History, Astronomical, Ethnological and other varieties. Typical examples are the Hunterian Museum of Anatomy at the Royal College of Surgeons, London ; the Herbarium at Kew ; the Museum of Practical Geology ; the Pharmaceutical Society ; the Natural History Museum at South Kensington ; the United Service Museum (Naval and Military) at Whitehall ; and the historical collections of the British Museum which include Ethnology.

LOCAL MUSEUMS.—These are to be found in all parts of the country, and they usually serve to illustrate and preserve the natural history and antiquities of a particular district; and they differ from national museums, in being restricted to a particular locality.

SPECIAL MUSEUMS.—Of these there is practically no end. They have been formed to illustrate certain restricted departments of science, art or history, such as Hygiene, Numismatics, Watch-making, Heraldry, Costume, etc., and they resemble exhibitions of a special kind, save that they are permanent.

470. Generally speaking, a museum is a collection of the objects which go towards the formation of a subject, just as a library is a collection of the literature connected with a subject or subjects. The museum is necessary to the material conception of a subject, just as literature is essential as the permanent record of the subject. For example, in tracing the evolution of the printed book from its manuscript forms, one can form an idea of the appearance of such books by reading up the relative literature, and examining a few facsimiles, and so on; but, in order to realize in a perfect way the aspect, atmosphere and details of early writing and printing, one must go to the great exhibitions or museums of such books at the British Museum or John Rylands Library, Manchester. It is the same with machinery. While a diagram of a machine as it appears in a book may be comprehensible to a few specially educated minds, it would be a mere puzzle to an ordinary human being unless he could go to a museum like that at South Kensington and see a working model of the machine in operation. He could then realize in a practical and concrete way the merely graphic or theoretical view afforded by the book.

471. All the great State museums in the country have been established under the provisions of special Acts of Parliament. Some of these, like the various acts establishing the British Museum, date from the eighteenth century, while others are much more recent. It is not proposed to deal with the legislation and history of the State museums, nor is it necessary to do

more than describe, later on, their relations with the municipal museums which may now be considered.

472. In 1845 was passed the first Museums Act (8 & 9 Vict., c. 43) "for encouraging the establishment of museums in large towns," under which the local authorities of towns over 10,000 of population were permitted to erect museums and levy a halfpenny rate. No specimens could be bought, but an entrance fee of 1d. could be charged. This Act was practically inoperative, as only Canterbury, Warrington, Leicester, Dover, Salford and a few other places adopted it, and in 1850 it was incorporated in the first Public Libraries Act, 1850 (13 & 14 Vict., c. 65), which repealed it and added the permissive clauses which existed till 1893. This Act in its turn was repealed by that of 1855, and again this was repealed by the Public Library Act of 1892 and subsequent amendments, which remain the leading Acts under which libraries may be established, with such subsidiary departments as museums and art galleries. A digest of the powers conferred on local authorities by those various Acts appears in Section 4 of this *Manual*. The authorities seem to have become aware of the difficulty of supporting so many institutions out of one restricted rate, because in 1891 was passed "An Act to enable Urban Authorities to provide and maintain Museums and Gymnasiums". Under this Act, which did not apply to Scotland or the County of London, but only to England and Ireland, local authorities were enabled to levy a special rate of ½d. per pound for museum purposes, and a rate of ½d. per pound for gymnasium purposes, and to make regulations for the purposes of both kinds of institutions. In 1901 this Act was extended to the County of London by the "Public Libraries Act," 1901. A resolution of the local authority is sufficient for the purpose of adopting this Act, and the regulations for adoption are similar to those prescribed for the Public Libraries Acts. The principal clauses of the Act are as follows :—

Clause 4.—"An urban authority may provide and maintain museums for the reception of local antiquities or other objects

of interest, and gymnasiums with all the apparatus ordinarily used therewith, and may erect any buildings, and generally do all things necessary for the provision and maintenance of such museums and gymnasiums."

Clause 5.—" A museum provided under this Act shall be open to the public not less than three days in every week free of charge, but subject thereto an urban authority may admit any person or class of persons thereto as they think fit, and may charge fees for such admission, or may grant the use of the same or of any room therein, either gratuitously or for payment, to any person for any lecture or exhibition or for any purpose of education or instruction. . . ."

Full power is given by other clauses to make all necessary regulations as to hours, staff, order, etc., in both museums and gymnasiums, and for borrowing money for buildings or other purposes.

Separate accounts are to be kept, and "The amount expended by an urban authority under this Act shall not in any year exceed the amount produced by a rate of a halfpenny in the pound for a museum, and the like amount for a gymnasium established under this Act".

473. A new provision in legislation of this kind is contained in Clause 12, which empowers an urban authority to *sell* a museum or gymnasium after seven years' trial, if it is deemed unnecessary or too expensive, but only with the consent of the Local Government Board. Any moneys received from such sale are to be applied, in the first instance, to the repayment of loans, and if not all required for such a purpose, may, with the approval of the Local Government Board, "be applied to any purpose to which capital moneys are properly applicable".

474. It is further provided (Clause 13) that the powers given to urban authorities under the Act "shall be deemed to be in addition to and not in derogation of any other powers conferred by Act of Parliament, law, or custom, and such other powers may be exercised in the same manner as if this Act had not

been passed". In other words, the powers conferred by the "Public Libraries Acts," for example, with regard to museums, still hold good, and the new powers created by the "Museums and Gymnasiums Act" can be exercised as an addition to them. It should be noted that, in addition to the general legislation contained in the Public Libraries and Museums Acts, many private or local Acts have been passed, under which different localities have obtained power to spend money on the provision of museums and art galleries, greatly in excess of the limits imposed by the general Acts.

475. This represents practically the whole of the legislation connected with municipal museums, and it may be inferred from the financial provision allowed by Parliament, that no museum which depends entirely upon the halfpenny rate can be in a very flourishing condition. The deficiencies of the rate-income are in many cases made up by the donations and bequests of private donors; occasionally public bodies render valuable aid; not infrequently the closely restricted library rate is nibbled at and diverted from its real purpose; and very often the State, represented by the Victoria and Albert Museums at South Kensington, circulates useful and valuable loan collections. In these various ways museums are helped, and within the past few years, or since the Museums Association was established in 1890, the organization, scientific value and equipment of museums have improved in a very marked degree. No doubt in some localities can still be seen the old-fashioned, hotch-potch collection of miscellaneous lumber styled a museum, wherein a stuffed walrus jostles a suit of armour, and local fossils and meteorites are beautifully mixed up with birds' eggs, flint implements and coins. Such collections only require an alligator, and a canoe from Fiji on the walls, to be perfect specimens of the Wardour Street kind of museum. Happily, this kind of omnium-gatherum museum is rapidly dying out before the advance of rational classification, and in some cases where collections are small and contained in one room, yet, by means of intelligent arrangement, incongruous objects are kept

apart, and the little museum is made an instructive nucleus, instead of a high class marine-store.

476. This leads to such questions as the elements of museum classification and description, which are the most important points in the relations between libraries and schools and museums. Without classification a general or even special museum is comparatively useless. Without effective arrangement and descriptive labelling the specimens remain uninstructive and misleading. On these two points museums resemble libraries, and it is only when they agree in the essentials of classification and description that the institutions become mutually beneficial. A well-classified and arranged cabinet of minerals, with a full set of descriptive labels, is simply invaluable to the student of mineralogy and geology. When, therefore, a student is referred from the literature in a library to the objects described in the text-books, he is educated to the extent of being able to appreciate the fact that objects are grouped together in respect of certain resemblances, and that classification into related groups is the basis of the science he is studying. On going to a museum of specimens, such a student, if he were an entomologist, would naturally expect to find together all the butterflies, bees, beetles, flies and other objects properly classified according to order, genera and species. If he found all the moths, bugs, flies and beetles mingled in one huge jumble, and labelled Insects, the collection would be uninstructive and would throw no light on his previous reading.

477. Whatever set of concrete objects a student sets out to examine in a museum, after being referred from his books, he expects to find some relationship between the literature he has studied and the objects he means to compare and examine. On this principle all the large museums of the world are arranged, and the result is that no student who has previously acquired an elementary knowledge of an art or science from text-books should experience any difficulty in finding his way about a museum. It is true that, for purposes of popular display and to tickle up juvenile interest in natural history, some museums

exhibit fine specimens of birds or mammals out of their order, where they will attract notice, but the bulk of the collection will be found in strictly classified order. In many important museums it has been found useful to illustrate animal structure and comparative anatomy by means of key or type collections, which are kept apart from the general classification, yet serve to illustrate important points in comparative zoology, which it would be difficult to do on a very extensive scale. There are many text-books written exactly on the same principle. One author takes a rabbit, another a crayfish, and from these bases teach the main facts of animal structure which apply all round. So in a museum. While it would be absolutely impossible to repeat at every centre such a fine collection of minerals as has been gathered together at the Natural History Museum at South Kensington, yet it is possible to illustrate the main facts and classification of mineralogy by means of a selection of actual specimens or models. Similarly at the British Museum, the student of early printing does not find himself confronted with a complete chronological sequence of all the books printed in the fifteenth century to illustrate the incunabula, but he finds a selection, or type collection, which in the most effectual way traces the development and evolution of the printed book. The more these type collections are adopted and utilized, the greater will become the value of museums for elementary science teaching, and as most museums are unable to collect and display specimens of *everything* in the world, it is obvious that they must do as libraries have to do, select only what is best, most typical and instructive, and leave indiscriminate collecting to the great universal museums supported by the State.

478. A well-arranged and classified museum, whether of a general character, or which is confined to local botany, zoology, geology and archæology, has great bearing on the educational work of public libraries. It enables a reader to *realize* the material side of his studies, and by showing him related objects in a definite order, broadens his outlook on the subject, and

brings home to him the reality of the matter. As object-lessons are to school-children, so are museums to library readers.

479. Art galleries are divisible into three classes—1. Those maintained or assisted by the State = the National Gallery; Scottish National Art Gallery, etc. 2. Those endowed by private munificence or by public bodies = the Wallace Collection; Tate Gallery; the Walker Art Gallery, Liverpool; the Harris Art Gallery, Preston, etc. 3. Those maintained from local rates levied under special Acts of Parliament; or, under the Public Libraries Acts, which empower local authorities to support art galleries out of the penny rate. There is no special Act for the establishment of art galleries similar to the Museums Act already described, and apart from special Acts, the Public Libraries Acts are the only ones which empower the establishment of art galleries. Needless to say, such powers are rarely exercised unless other sources of endowment or income are forthcoming. So many single pictures cost more than the produce of a penny rate in most towns, that it is, on the face of it, absurd to think of art galleries only as departments of public libraries. In some cases part of the library rate is no doubt used to defray part of the expenses of art galleries, particularly buildings, but it is very unusual to purchase pictures from such a meagre fund. Art galleries are greatly assisted by loan exhibitions contributed to by artists, picture owners, both public and private, and the national art authorities acting through the Victoria and Albert Museum at South Kensington. Annually, the South Kensington authorities lend to over 400 museums, exhibitions, schools of art and science, etc., no fewer than 47,000 objects, of which 46,000 are works of art, including pictures, embroideries, photographs, metal-work, pottery, etc. But for these circulating collections, comparatively few of the smaller art galleries of the country could keep alive interest simply by means of their own permanent collections. It is only in large towns, like London, Edinburgh, Dublin, Glasgow, Birmingham, Liverpool, etc, where great and representative collections are kept illustrating the leading schools of art, that

any direct educational value can be said to attach to art galleries. So far as educational value is concerned, an art gallery cannot for a moment be compared to a museum or a library. Its appeal on the educational side is to a very small section of the public, and even to this section, such appeal is limited by the size and character of the collection. The student of early Italian or Flemish painting can learn nothing in a little provincial art gallery containing fifty or sixty modern landscapes and figure subjects; and the student of Impressionist painting will not find much to help him in a gallery composed of examples of old Dutch and French masters. The value of an art gallery depends, therefore, on its size and representative nature so far as art students are concerned, and on the appeal which fine paintings make to the higher feelings and perceptions of mankind for its influence as a creator of taste and stimulator of a love of the beautiful. When an art collection takes the form of a special exhibition illustrative of a subject, rather than a particular school of painting, its value and interest are enormously increased. Suppose, for example, that an art gallery is devoted to an exhibition illustrative of some great historical subject, like the career of Napoleon I. The value of the pictorial side of the subject at once stands forth with great prominence, and one can realize the educational value of art in the exposition of history. But in a mere random collection of pictures, on all kinds of subjects, by all kinds of painters, there is no kind of consecutive teaching or definite connexion with the art literature contained in a library, and, therefore, such a miscellaneous selection of pictures is chiefly valuable as a kind of vague appeal to the æsthetic feelings of the casual observer. Only great collections like those of the National Gallery in London, and the Louvre at Paris, can be said to illustrate the literature of art, and it is chiefly in regard to such art galleries that some direct connexion can be traced between art collections and libraries.

480. Museums and Art Galleries—

Chambers and Fovargue. Law relating to . . . museums.
Bain (J.) Museums in connection with libraries. L. J., 1893, p. 214.
Baker (—.) Descriptive arrangement of museum collections. Museums Jnl., v. 2, p. 106.
Bather (F. A.) Names on the labels in public galleries. Museums Jnl., v. 2, p. 137.
Brown (—.) Industrial museums in their relation to art. Museums Jnl., v. 1, p. 93.
Flower (Sir W. H.) Essays on museums. 1898.
Gilman (—.) Distinctive purpose of museums of art. Museums Jnl., v. 3, p. 213.
Greenwood (T.) Museums and art galleries. 1888.
Hecht (—.) How to make small natural history museums interesting. Museums Jnl., v. 3, p. 188.
Hoyle (—.) Use of museums in teaching. Museums Jnl., v. 2, p. 229.
McIlvaine (C.) Museums in their relation to libraries. P. L., v. 10, p. 6.
Maclauchlan (J.) Museum and art insurance. Museums Jnl., v. 1, p. 345.
—— Technical museums. Museums Jnl., v. 2, p. 163.
Minto (J.) Public libraries and museums. L. A. R., 1903, p. 261.
Murray (David) Museums: their history and use. 1904. 3 v.
Temple (A. G.) Art galleries in relation to public libraries. L. A. R., v. 3, p. 13.

APPENDIX.

481. Factors and Percentages.—The following figures have been derived from a number of different sources, and are intended to provide a rough basis from which various calculations can be made. As a rule they represent average percentages, taken from a large number of results obtained in British libraries, and this must be distinctly understood all through. The figures can only be used, therefore, for the purpose of obtaining rough approximations and must not be assumed to be accurate factors which will apply to every individual library, and every kind of condition. For the purpose of obtaining a reasonably exact idea of the possible size, stock, use, or expenditure of a given library, the figures given will be found very useful, and as this is the first time any attempt has been made to collect such factors and percentages, it is hoped they will be taken for what they are, and not be magnified into something more important than they pretend to be.

482. Number and Size of Great Libraries.—The seven great nations which possess more than ten very large libraries of over 100,000 volumes, arranged in order of the total number of volumes stocked :—

Country.	Libs. over 100,000 v.	Total Vols.
United States	68	15,182,000
Germany	47	13,996,000
Britain	31	8,153,000
France	27	7,186,000
Italy	27	6,072,000
Russia	12	4,041,000
Austria	15	3,967,000

The same arranged in order of the average size of the great libraries of each country :—

Country.	Average Size of Large Libraries.
Russia	336,750 vols.
Germany	297,787 ,,
France	266,148 ,,
Austria	264,466 ,,
Britain	263,000 ,,
Italy	224,888 ,,
United States	223,264 ,,

483. Committees.—Variations in sizes of municipal library committees according to the data collected by Mr. John Ballinger, of Cardiff, in 1894.

No. of Committees.	No. of Members.
1	5
66	6 to 10
104	11 to 20
29	21 to 30
9	31 to 40
3	41 to 50
2	51 to 60

This gives an average of about 16 members for each committee.

484. Finance.—Percentages of expenditure in the principal classes of payments in municipal libraries :—

Buildings	absorb about	13	per cent.	of the rate income.
Books	,,	14	,,	,,
Periodicals	,,	6	,,	,,
Bindings	,,	5	,,	,,
Salaries	,,	37	,,	,,
Establishment Charges	,,	7	,,	,,
Loans	,,	18	,,	,,

It is important to bear in mind that, owing to the many recent gifts of library buildings by Mr. Carnegie, and the automatic extinction of loans in several places, the average percentage of expenditure on loans is gradually decreasing. Some years ago it was 25 per cent. of the rate income, now it is 18 per cent., a reduction of 7 per cent., due to the causes just mentioned.

When there are no loans on a library, the 18 per cent. should be distributed rateably among the remaining four heads of expenditure. If divided rateably the proportions become roughly—

Buildings	16	per cent.
Books	17	,,
Periodicals	8	,,
Binding	6	,,
Salaries	45	,,
Establishment	8	,,

485. Buildings.—To obtain a rough estimate of the probable cost of a building :—

Ascertain the total area of the building in square feet, including the outside walls. Multiply this by the average height of the building, allow-

ing 10 feet additional for foundations and roof ridges. This gives the cubical contents of the building. Allow 1s. per cubic foot in London, and 10d. per cubic foot elsewhere, as the cost of the building, including architect's fees, etc. Add 18 per cent. as cost of good fittings and furniture.

Example: A one-floor building is 100 by 50 square feet in area = 5,000 square feet.

Its average room height is 14 feet, which with 10 feet additional makes a total height of 24 feet.

5,000 feet area
24 ,, high

20,000
10,000

120,000 cubic feet.

At London price of 1s. per cubic foot, this building would cost about £6,000. At provincial price of 10d. per cubic foot it would cost about £5,000. The fittings would add £1,080 and £900 respectively. Or the estimate may be worked out in detail like this—

Cost of Structure, 120,000 cubic feet @ 10d. .	£5,000
Fittings and Furniture, 18 per cent. on £5,000 .	900
Architect's Fee, 5 per cent. on £5,000, 1 per cent. for Extras	300
Quantity Surveyor, 3 per cent.	150
Clerk of Works, 3 per cent.	150
Contingencies, 5 per cent.	250
	£6,750

By allowing an inclusive sum of 1s. per cubic foot and 18 per cent. for fittings, the total reaches £6,000 + £1,080 = £7,080. Or at provincial rates, £5,000 + £900 = £5,900. The detailed method of working out this estimate is perhaps the safest, as it allows for fluctuations in the cost per cubic foot.

NOTE.—In planning out library floors, always allow from 18 inches to 24 inches for outside walls, and from 6 inches to 9 inches for interior partitions. *Never represent any wall or partition by means of a single line, as this will throw the whole area out of proportion.*

BRANCHES.—The average number of population to every library and branch in large towns in Britain is 38,000; but the branches include many very small and poorly equipped temporary rooms hired for the purpose. If only fully equipped branches with all departments are considered, then it

will be found more accurate and satisfactory to regard 60,000 as a minimum factor.

486. Reading Room.—Assuming that 10 per cent. of the population are attracted, and that 2½ per cent. use the reading room daily, in the case of a town with 50,000 inhabitants, then 1,250 will be the total daily number of readers. If the library remains open twelve hours daily, the average attendance would be about 104 per hour, but if allowance is made for crowded periods, it will be wise to reckon on 150. Allotting 12 square feet per reader for his chair, table, gangways, etc., the area of a suitable reading room for the readers attracted would be 1,800 square feet. Children's libraries may be planned on a 10 square feet allowance per reader.

487. Reference Library.—If 4 per cent. of the population is attracted to the reference department, 1 per cent. or 500 may use the room daily, but probably not more than ½ per cent. will come at first. Assuming the larger figure, however, and taking the daily hours at twelve, a total of about forty-two per hour is obtained. It will be safe, therefore, to provide for forty readers at 18 square feet each in a town of 50,000 inhabitants, which gives a total room area of 720 square feet.

488. Lecture Rooms.—Including gangways, seating accommodation and platform, an allowance of not less than 6 square feet per person should be given.

489. Book Selection—The Field of Choice.—Authorities differ as to the total number of books issued since the invention of movable type about 1454. Some place it as high as 20,000,000, others as low as 10,000,000 volumes. A fair mean would be about 15,000,000, excluding manuscripts and the great majority of local, official and ephemeral publications. M. Paul Otlet of the International Institute of Bibliography, Brussels, has published the following detailed figures:—

Books printed from 1436 to 1536 = 42,000
[The Incunabula (1454-1500) are known to number over 30,000 alone]
Books issued 1536-1636 = 575,000
" 1636-1736 = 1,225,000
" 1736-1822 = 1,839,000
" 1822-1887 = 6,500,000
" 1877-1898 = 1,782,000
" 1899-1903 = 750,000
[@ 150,000 per annum]
Total 12,713,000 books.

In addition he allows 15,000,000 for periodical publications, a grand total of 27,713,000 volumes. He estimates that the books are issued in the following proportions:—

Law and Sociology	25·42	per cent.
Literature	20·46	,,
Applied Science	12·18	,,
History, Geography	11·44	,,
Theology, Religion	10·00	,,
Miscellaneous, Bibliography	9·00	,,
Philology	4·08	,,
Natural Science	3·44	,,
Art	2·62	,,
Philosophy	1·36	,,
	100·00	,,

490. Present International Annual Output of Books, etc.—Here again there is a wide difference in the estimates, caused chiefly by the omission in some cases of pamphlets, music, prints, etc., and by omitting or including this or the other minor publishing country. A minimum estimate based upon various official returns gives the following figures:—

	Volumes.
"Vendible" Books and Pamphlets	106,000
Private, official, local, institutional, and other publications, not primarily issued for sale	100,000
Magazines and Newspapers	51,000
Music	21,000
Maps and Prints	5,000
	283,000

In actual practice this annual output is only selected from to a very limited extent, and that only by the largest libraries. The following is given as the possible field of choice offered annually by the new publications of the whole world:—

	Volumes.
British New Books	2,000
American, German, French and others	1,000
Periodicals of all kinds	1,000
Private Publications of all kinds	1,000
Reprints, Music, Maps and Prints	1,000
Select Annual Total from International Field of Choice	6,000

491. British Annual Output of Books, etc.—These are reported in the *Publishers' Circular* as averaging about 7,000 books per annum, including reprints, bibles, school-books, etc. But as this

total only includes books which are chronicled in the *Publishers' Circular*, it is obvious that it is far below the mark. Here is a more accurate figure :—

	Books.
New Vendible Books—(*Publishers' Circular*) . . .	5,800
New Editions and Reprints ,, ...	1,500
Periodicals—(*Mitchell's Press Directory*)	5,000
Music—(*British Museum Copyright Figures*) . . .	8,000
Maps ,, ,, . . .	600
Private, Official and Local Books and Pamphlets, excluding Commercial Documents	36,100
	57,000

By omitting sermons, tracts, bibles, prayer-books ; school-books; minor fiction ; commercial tracts ; out-of-the-way year-books ; medical and other technology ; pamphlets ; and matter otherwise unsuitable for the average general library, we get the figure of 2,000 quoted above as the number of British new books from which choice can annually be made.

492. Average percentage of different classes of books as ascertained by examining the stock tables of many libraries :—

Science	8	per cent.	of total stock.
Useful Arts	7	,,	,,
Fine Arts	7	,,	,,
Social Science	8	,,	,,
Theology	6	,,	,,
History and Geography . . .	15	,,	,,
Biography	8	,,	,,
Language and Literary History .	5	,,	,,
Poetry	6	,,	,,
Fiction	20	,,	,,
Miscellaneous	10	,,	,,
	100	,,	

It will be seen on comparing these percentages with those of M. Paul Otlet for the output of books, that there is not much resemblance between the proportions of books ultimately selected and stocked by libraries and those of books published.

493. Table showing proportionate amounts which may be annually spent on books and periodicals, in libraries with different incomes :—

Total Income.	Periodicals 6 °/₀.	Total Books 14 °/₀.	Proportions for Different Kinds of Books.			Total Expenditure on Books and Periods. 20 °/₀.
			New 8 °/₀.	Old 4 °/₀.	Replacements 2 °/₀.	
£	£	£	£	£	£	£
500	30	70	40	20	10	100
1,000	60	140	80	40	20	200
1,500	90	210	120	60	30	300
2,000	120	280	160	80	40	400
2,500	150	350	200	100	50	500
3,000	180	420	240	120	60	600
4,000	240	560	320	160	80	800
5,000	300	700	400	200	100	1,000
10,000	600	1,400	800	400	200	2,000
20,000	1,200	2,800	1,600	800	400	4,000

NOTE.—In using this table it should be remembered that the Income basis is the only safe one to adopt in the case of British municipal libraries, which are restricted in their expenditure by Parliamentary limitations.

494. Proportions of Reference and Lending Stock in British Municipal Libraries, as averaged from many reports, etc. :—

Percentage of Lending Stock 55 per cent. of whole.
,, Reference ,, 45 ,, ,,

In a library of 10,000 volumes, this would work out as in the following table:—

Class.	55 per cent. Lending.		Vols.	45 per cent. Reference.		Vols.	Total. Vols.
Science	8	per cent. =	440	10	per cent. =	450	890
Useful Arts	7	,,	385	9	,,	405	790
Fine Arts	7	,,	385	9	,,	405	790
Social Science	8	,,	440	9	,,	405	845
Religion	6	,,	330	8	,,	360	690
History, etc.	15	,,	825	16	,,	720	1,545
Biography	8	,,	440	10	,,	450	890
Philology	5	,,	275	7	,,	315	590
Poetry	6	,,	330	8	,,	360	690
Fiction	23	,,	1,265	2	,,	90	1,355
Miscellaneous	7	,,	385	12	,,	540	925
	100	,,	5,500	100	,,	4,500	10,000

495. Percentages of Books and Periodicals acquired by Purchase and Donation in British Municipal Libraries:—

Books acquired by Purchase	85	per cent.
,, Donation	15	,,
	100	,,

Periodicals acquired by Purchase	59	per cent.
,, Donation	41	,,
	100	,,

Miscellaneous Percentages.

496. Total number of persons, over twelve years of age, in any town, who *could*, if so disposed, use a Public Library. 50 per cent. of the total population.

The actual figure is 60 per cent., but 10 per cent. has been allowed for illiterates, the very aged, and a certain proportion is given to persons between ten and twelve years of age.

497. Total percentage of inhabitants of towns who actually use lending departments. 6 per cent. In estimating for provision of accommodation in progressive towns, allow 10 per cent.

This is the figure which results from taking the average number of borrowers over the whole country.

498. Average annual issue per head of population. 1·80 books, or just 180 volumes for every 100 people. Not quite two books per person per annum. This is as nearly as possible 30 volumes per borrower per annum.

499. Stock to population (average of many libraries). 30·60 books per 100 of population, or less than ½ of a book each. Lending stock to every borrower, three books each.

500. Staff to borrowers. 00·19 of staff for every 100 borrowers.

501. Staff to stock. ·036 of assistant to every 100 volumes, or one member of staff to every 2,436 volumes.

502. Estimated total users of British municipal libraries out of a possible total of 50 per cent. of population.

Borrowers (as before) . . .	6	per cent.
Newsroom users	10	,,
Reference library users . .	4	,,
Total . .	20	,,

These percentages differ so much everywhere, and so much is mere guesswork that nothing very definite can be extracted from these estimates of newsroom and reference library use. In calculating how many people are likely to use a library, however, 20 per cent. of the population may be regarded as a safe minimum to allow for. This percentage should be used when specifications of building requirements are calculated on a population basis instead of a financial basis.

503. Sex of borrowers :—

Males	59 per cent.
Females	41 ,,
	100 ,,

504. Ages of borrowers :—

Under 14 years of age	16 per cent.
Over 14 and under 20	32 ,,
,, 20 ,, 40	34 ,,
,, 40 years of age	8 ,,
Ages not stated	10 ,,
	100 ,,

505. Occupations of borrowers :—

Domestic	7 per cent.
Professional	7 ,,
Students and Scholars	20 ,,
Industrial (Trades)	20 ,,
Commercial	29 ,,
Unstated	17 ,,
	100 ,,

506. Time allowed for reading books. This ranges from seven to twenty-eight days, with numerous cases of varying times being allowed by the same library, as seven and ten days, seven and fourteen days, etc.

Average of 269 libraries, about 12 days.

507. Fines imposed for overdue books. Average of sixty-two libraries 1·53d., or just over 1½d. per week. Some libraries impose fines of 1d. per day overdue (4), some only 1d. a week (30).

508. Time taken to issue borrowers' cards. Average 4·25 days. The range is from one day (2) to one week (20).

509. Charge for borrowers' cards. Out of sixty-eight libraries, forty-eight make a charge (illegal) of 1d. for each borrower's card; the remaining twenty charge nothing.

510. Time occupied by borrowers in the reading of fiction and non-fiction (*i.e.*, times the books are actually kept by borrowers):—

Fiction	8 days.
Non-Fiction	12 ,,
Average . .	10 ,,

511. Table of average Issue Percentages in various classes:—

Issues.	Lending.	Reference.	Whole Lib.
Fiction . . .	69·95 per cent.	·26 per cent.	54 per cent.
Juvenile . . .	15·57 ,,	— ,,	15 ,,
Science and Arts .	6·17 ,,	20·36 ,,	8 ,,
History, Biography	6·12 ,,	34·39 ,,	10 ,,
Religion . . .	1·58 ,,	6·29 ,,	2 ,,
Poetry . . .	·99 ,,	4·68 ,,	1 ,,
Social Science .	·55 ,,	4·86 ,,	1 ,,
Magazines . .	2·53 ,,	14·87 ,,	5 ,,
General . . .	2·54 ,,	14·29 ,,	4 ,,
	100·00 ,,	100·00 ,,	100 ,,

When these figures are qualified by the time-measurement of issues, the percentages of fiction and non-fiction roughly work out at 50 per cent. each. The tendency is for the percentage of fiction to decrease in most parts of the country.

END.

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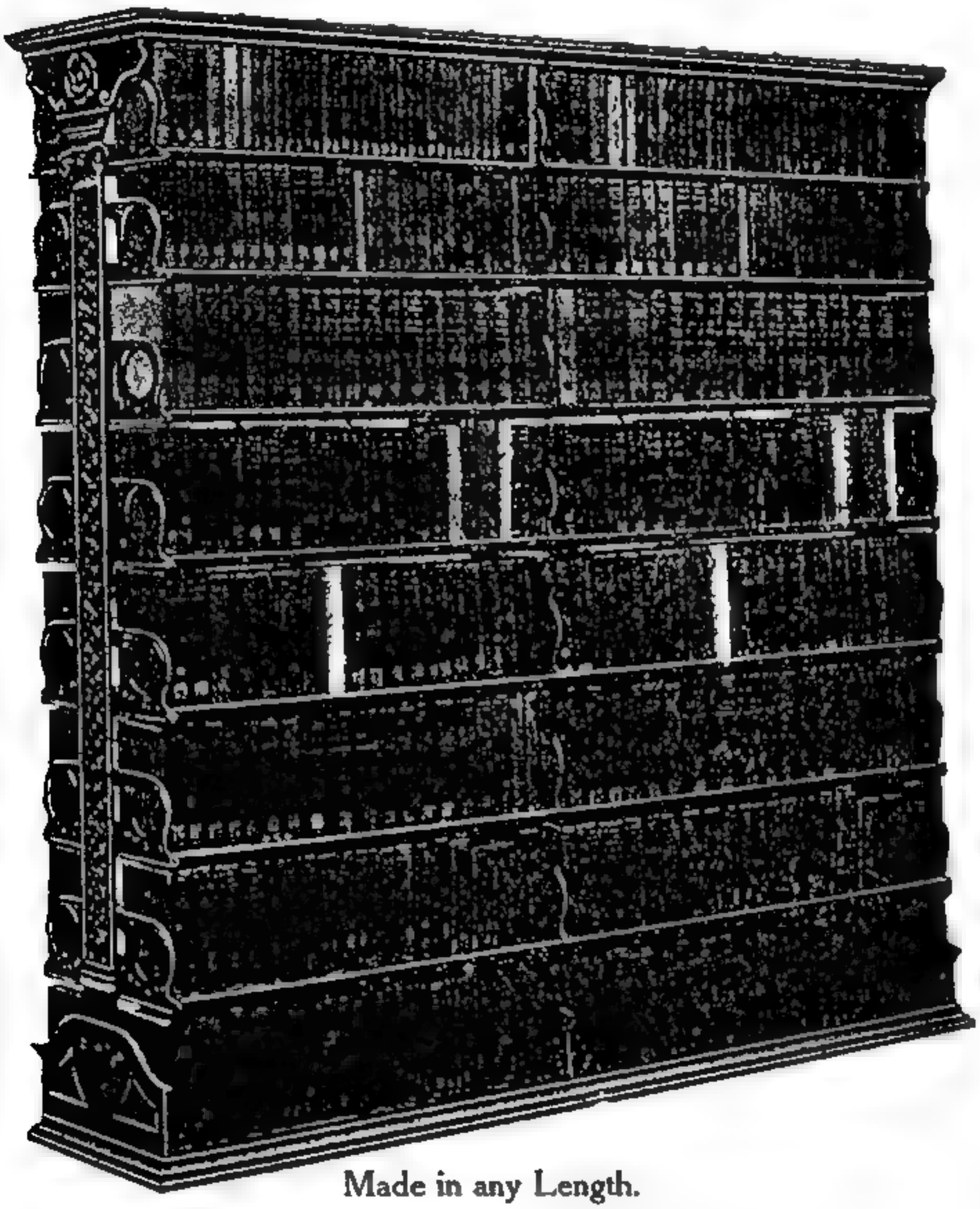

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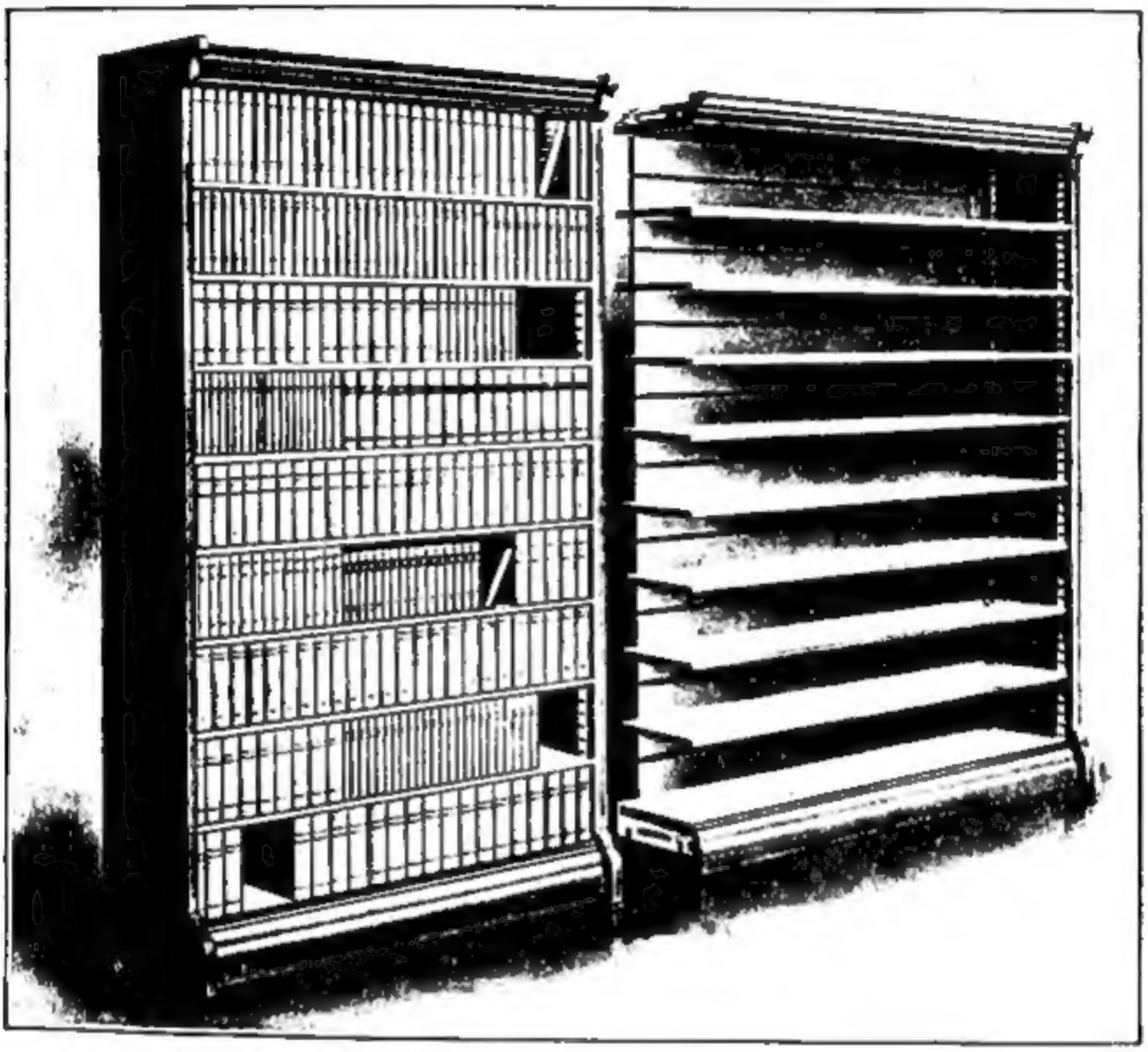

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